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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the fourth section of a book of readings on issues related to adult career development. The four chapters in this fourth section focus on settings in which adult career development counseling may take place. "Career Planning and Development in Organizations" (Peter Cairo) discusses several concepts and definitions relevant to the understanding of career development in organizational settings and presents a brief description of current practices. "Adult Career Development in University Settings: Practical Perspectives" (Dennis Keierleber and L. Sunny Sundal-Hansen) focuses on universities, examining the characteristics of adult students and the philosophy and practices of the university that influence adult students' career and educational development. A conceptual model for career service providers to meet the needs of adults on the campus is included. "Community-Based Adult Career Counseling" (Jane Goodman and Elinor Waters) discusses some of the changing needs of adults for community-based career development programs and identifies some parameters that program planners need to consider in developing their approaches. "Career Counseling Adults in a Community College Setting" (Patricia Haskell and Nancy Wiener) discusses how adult and career development theories can help community college counselors understand and better meet students' needs and notes that limitations of adult career development theories can be exacerbated by the nature and scope of the community college. (NB)

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SECTION IV:

SETTINGS

IN A VARIETY OF PLACES. . .

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CHAPTER 15

Career Planning and Development in Organizations

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During the last several years there has been increasing interest among organizations in programs intended to promote the career development of their employees. Several recent surveys have shed some light on the factors that account for this surge in popularity. From management's point of view, career planning and development programs have several purposes. Walker and Gutteridge (1979) reported that the vast majority of companies they surveyed believed that career planning and development programs enhance job performance, help employees use the personnel system more effectively, and improve the organization's ability to utilize employee talent. Among the other reasons frequently cited by management for sponsoring career planning and development programs are to reduce turnover, to conform to affirmative action and equal employment opportunity requirements, to encourage employees to take greater responsibility for their own careers, and, finally, to respond positively to employees' expressions of interest in such programs (Cohen, 1977; Griffith, 1980; Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Lancaster & Berne, 1981; Morgan, Hall, & Martier, 1979). When these lofty ambitions are combined with employees' recognition that work strongly influences the overall quality of their lives, it is not surprising that career planning and development programs of all kinds have emerged in so many organizations.

Yet even the most ardent proponent of career planning and development in organizations would concede that it is unclear to just what extent many activities have achieved their objectives. As Walker and Gutteridge (1979) pointed out, opinions regarding the effectiveness of various types of career planning and development programs vary widely from organization to organization. In addition, there is a notable dearth of systematic research on the impact of such programs (Brooks, 1984; Cairo, 1983; Super & Hall, 1978).

Despite the absence of evaluative evidence, much attention has been devoted to adult development, including issues adults confront in managing their careers. And an increasingly large body of literature is devoted to describing career development in organizations and specific efforts to

implement various career planning and development programs. A review of this literature suggests that several key issues bear directly on the success of any organization's effort to mount such programs. Before identifying these issues, however, this chapter will begin with a discussion of several concepts and definitions relevant to our understanding of career development in organizational settings and a brief description of current practices.

CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

In the last decade there have been several efforts to conceptualize and investigate the salient developmental tasks that are confronted during adulthood (Gould, 1978; Levinson, 1978; Lowenthal, Thurnher, & Chiriboga, 1975; Schlossberg, Troll, & Leibowitz, 1978; Vaillant, 1977). Some of these approaches have enhanced our understanding of the issues that adults engage during the course of their careers. These theories, and others that focus more specifically on career development, are reviewed in greater detail elsewhere (See chapters 1, 2, 3). This section will describe, briefly, concepts associated directly with careers in organizations.

An examination of the literature on careers in organizations reveals that the term *career* means different things to different people. For some career is synonomous with advancement or vertical mobility, whereas for others it is regarded as a lifelong sequence of jobs and work-related experiences regardless of their direction (Hall, 1976). Adding to the confusion is the frequent absence of any clear distinction between such practices as career planning, career pathing, career counseling, career ladders, career management, and so forth. In an effort to bring some order to this disarray, Gutteridge and Otte (1983) proposed a model that distinguishes between institutional and individual processes within the organization. They refer to the former as *career management* processes and include activities such as recruitment and selection, human resource allocation, appraisal and evaluation, and training and development. The latter are referred to as *career planning* processes. Generally intended to respond to individual needs, these activities include occupational choice, organizational choice, choice of job assignment, and career self-development.

Schein (1978) proposed a similar, though more elaborate model based on the notion that human resource activities must be congruent with both organizational needs and individual needs in order to maximize organizational effectiveness while at the same time enhancing individual satisfaction. In his view, traditional personnel functions such as job analysis, selection, performance appraisal, and so forth should be intended to meet not only the present and future human resource demands of the organization, but the developmental needs of the individuals who are a part of the organization. For example, the success of an assessment center intended to evaluate employee potential would be contingent not only upon the extent to which it responded effectively to the organization's need to anticipate future human resource needs. It would also be judged on the extent to which it could be used to promote the development of individual participants, perhaps by helping them identify skills need-

ing improvement, the positions most likely to maximize their strengths, or methods for integrating assessment results within a larger framework of overall career planning.

In a further elaboration of the organizational career, Schein (1978) suggested that each individual develops what he referred to as a "career anchor." Based on a small sample of business school alumni, he observed that from the early stages of a career employees acquire important self-knowledge that gradually shapes their occupational self-concept. Career anchors are composed of persons' self-perceived *talents and abilities*, *motives and needs*, and *attitudes and values*. Developing on the basis of actual work experiences in which these various self-perceptions are tested, career anchors become more stable as persons acquire more and more feedback from their work environment.

On the basis of his limited research Schein (1978) identified five career anchors that he labeled *managerial*, *technical/functional*, *security*, *autonomy*, and *creativity*. He concedes, however, that these categories may not be inclusive of all employees in all organizations. More research is needed to validate existing anchors and to determine whether or not others should be added.

Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977) developed a model of careers based on interviews of professionally trained employees (i.e. engineers, scientists, and professors) whom they identified as high or low performers. Their analyses suggested a four-stage model. Stage one is described as an apprenticeship during which the employee depends on the directions of others and is involved principally in learning from more senior members of the organization. During stage two the individual establishes independence and becomes an individual contributor. In stage three the individual assumes responsibility for others in the capacity of mentor. Finally, the central activity in stage four is to provide direction for the organization. The authors contend that although some aspects of each stage are present in others, there are central issues that make each stage unique.

Another of their observations was that within most organizations there were informal and often unstated expectations about crucial activities (and relationships) that determined both formal and informal rewards. For example, although achieving career success and satisfaction might involve becoming an effective mentor, nowhere is this expectation formally communicated to employees in the organization. They argue that not only can discussion of these so-called informal expectations be helpful to persons in planning their careers, but that they should become a formal part of performance appraisals and training curricula.

CURRENT PRACTICES

Perhaps as a result of the rapid proliferation of career development activities in organizations in recent years, it is difficult to determine accurately the current "state-of-the-art." In part this confusion stems from a tendency to refer to similar activities by different titles and different activities by the same titles. Brooks (1984) observed that, although *career planning program* is perhaps the most widely used label for pro-

grams intended to promote career development, there does not seem to be any consensus on precisely what career planning means. After careful review she concluded that there were four commonalities among several definitions of career planning: first, career planning is an active, not passive, process; second, it generally involves some method of fostering individual self-assessment, career exploration, occupational choice, goal setting, and planning; third, career planning is intended to bring about movement and growth; and fourth, it is a practice that is useful at various points throughout one's life. In an organizational context methods for facilitating career planning vary widely, from special programs devoted exclusively to career planning to the incorporation of career planning concepts in existing human resource functions.

There have been several efforts to determine the extent and type of career planning activities in organizations. Griffith (1980) conducted a survey of the career development practices provided by the Fortune 500 companies. Because only 23% of the companies contacted responded to his questionnaire, it is unclear to what extent his results are representative of business and industry as a whole. Nevertheless he found that approximately 30% of the organizations offered counseling to facilitate career exploration and planning, 43% provided job separation (i.e. outplacement) counseling; and 56% had some form of retirement planning program.

A larger and more representative sample was surveyed by Walker and Gutteridge (1979). Among the 225 companies studied there was strong support for the concept of career planning. There seemed, however, to be a wide gap between what was desired and what was practiced. This was reflected by the finding that the two most common types of career planning assistance available to employees were informal counseling by personnel staff or supervisors and dissemination of information about related services such as educational assistance, equal employment opportunity programs, and affirmative action. Most companies viewed career planning as a serious need, not simply a fad, and an important part of overall employee development.

Even more recently, Gutteridge and Otte (1983) conducted a series of structured telephone interviews with representatives of 40 U.S. organizations to determine their career development practices. These organizations were selected because they were known to have career development programs; in addition, they varied in size, geographic location, and type of industry. The two most common approaches were career planning workshops and career counseling/career discussions. Each of these approaches was found in approximately three-fourths of the organizations surveyed.

Despite the number of surveys that have attempted to determine just how extensive career planning programs are, the answer to this question remains elusive. Most surveys have reported response rates of less than 25%; it's possible, perhaps likely, that the failure of the "other 75%" to respond was due, at least in part, to the absence of any comprehensive and systematic career planning activities in their organizations. Furthermore, because most investigators have studied primarily large organizations, the extent and type of activities present in small and mid-

size organizations is unclear. Only Walker and Gutteridge (1979) are known to have made an effort to identify a large representative sample of organizations based on size, industry, and location.

Among the most noteworthy conclusions of Walker and Gutteridge's (1979) survey was that, despite increasing interest in career planning, it remains for most companies a largely informal, experimental, and fragmented activity. At the same time, however, among those organizations that have made a strong commitment to career planning, the most common types of activities are individual counseling, group workshops, and self-directed materials (Brooks, 1984). Individual counseling is provided in many forms, sometimes by external or internal consultants and sometimes by supervisors. Lancaster and Berne (1981) described a program at Disneyland in which a career planning orientation is followed by an individual consultation with a counselor to discuss employee educational objectives and career goals. Follow-up sessions with the counselor are available as often as desired.

Group workshops are another common form of career planning activity. Hanson (1981) described a comprehensive career/life planning workshop developed at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. Participants are exposed to a variety of techniques and instruments that help them assess their interests, values, goals, and choices. Workshop leaders also guide participants through a series of activities intended to help them identify their *motivated skills*, that is, the skills and abilities they enjoy and perform well. Individual counseling, self-directed workbooks, and a career resource center are available to participants who want to supplement workshop activities.

In recent years the marketplace has been flooded with self-help books of all kinds. Among them are some that are designed to promote career planning. The most widely known is Bolles' (1982) *What Color Is Your Parachute?* Many organizations have developed their own self-directed workbooks that take employees through a set of career planning exercises. Employees are generally encouraged to work through the exercises independently and at their own pace, though frequently they are encouraged to share the results with their immediate supervisor or someone else in the organization from whom they can get feedback.

There is evidence of increasing interest in adapting some traditional human resource functions to meet individual career development needs, although this is not among the most common forms of career planning activity. Gilbert and Jaffee (1982) and Hart and Thompson (1979) have described how assessment centers, in particular, can be used for facilitating career planning and development. The data that are collected during assessment represent a rich source of information about a person's skills and abilities that have direct implications for training, next assignments, education, as well as finding one's appropriate organizational "niche." Similar outcomes can be envisioned for performance appraisals. Past work performance could be evaluated in light of short-term and long-term career goals. Despite the uneven quality and frequency of the performance appraisal process in most organizations (Hall, 1976), it is nevertheless a common human resource function that also has the potential for assisting individuals in their career planning.

Regardless of what method is used to facilitate individual career planning and development, several key issues will influence the success of such efforts. The next section is devoted to a discussion of these issues and their practical implications.

ISSUES IN DEVELOPING CAREER PLANNING PROGRAMS

Recent interest in career development in organizations has brought to light several important elements that affect all efforts to implement successful programs. Some of these elements are indigenous to organizations and reflect the inherent tensions between organizational and individual needs. Other elements have grown from the haphazard and unsystematic proliferation of programs over the past 10 or 15 years and from the effort to translate concepts, principles, and practices directly from the traditional contexts of career counseling to large business organizations.

Employee Expectations

Some organizations resist sponsoring career planning programs for fear of creating unrealistic expectations of advancement among employees. Yet the extent to which this phenomenon exists is unclear. A survey of 56 Chicago-based companies led Morgan, Hall, and Martier (1979) to conclude that many employees see promotion as the most likely and desirable outcome of career development programs and are likely to be disappointed if no new position awaits them. In contrast, Walker and Gutteridge (1979) concluded that raising employee expectations was not considered a significant problem among the companies they surveyed. Despite this apparent confusion, it seems safe to assume that for at least some employees the term career development is synonomous with upward movement in the organization and can create the expectation that participation will lead directly to advancement.

The presence of these expectations can undermine the potential success of any program. In addition to fostering resistance from upper management who fear career development programs might lower morale among employees who aren't soon promoted (Souerwine, 1981), there are other problems. Associating career development entirely with advancement diminishes employees' perception of the value of career planning and development activities during times of limited expansion of opportunities or when an organization is undergoing major changes that cloud the future. Ironically, it is at times such as these when career planning activities may be needed most. One of the desired outcomes of career planning is to prepare persons to respond effectively to changing circumstances by applying their competencies to whatever opportunities are available. The rationale is simple. If, for example, two departments in the same company are merged, creating many new positions, the individual who has acquired basic career planning competencies will be in a better position to make choices based on clear preferences than the one who hasn't. On the other hand, when an organization is forced to contract and positions are being eliminated, enlightenment about their capacities

and aspirations can equip employees to be more flexible about using their skils and to take advantage of what opportunities do exist.

Another problem associated with the expectation of advancement is the tendency for employees to ignore other potentially valuable career goals. These goals might include anything from finding a different type of work to making more effective use of leisure to managing dual-career family situations. Such activities may not lead to promotion, but might well enhance overall career satisfaction in other ways.

Avoiding the problem of unrealistic expectations may be a matter of simply providing realistic and up-to-date information about career opportunities and increasing employees' awareness of outcomes other than promotion that can enhance their satisfaction. Hall and Lerner (1980) have suggested that realistic information about promotional opportunities coupled with realistic feedback on potential will alleviate the problem of unrealistic career expectations. This is consistent with the literature on recruitment that reveals that when organizations communicate realistic expectations to recruits, the turnover rate among the people eventually hired is lower than for those who have unrealistic expectations. Furthermore communicating both the positive and negative aspects of the organization does not hurt overall recruiting efforts (Wanous, 1973). These findings would seem to provide additional support for the notion that employees should be given accurate and realistic information about career opportunities if career planning and development efforts are going to be successful.

Responding to Diverse Career Development Needs

It comes as no surprise that increased attention to the career development of adults has led to the conclusion that there are considerable differences among individuals with respect to what they need. Campbell and Cellini (1981) developed a diagnostic taxonomy of adult career problems that included four common tasks, or types of problems, that occur across developmental stages. These tasks include career decision making, implementing career plans, organizational/institutional performance, and organizational/institutional adaptation. Each of these major categories is further divided and subdivided into more specific types of problems that adults might confront.

Yet an examination of career planning and development programs in organizations suggests there is little recognition of the diversity and complexity of the career problems of adults. Although strategies and techniques may vary, most programs have as their primary objective helping employees acquire, in one form or another, the same basic career planning competencies (i.e. self-appraisal, career exploration, goal setting, and planning). For many employees, particularly those at an early stage in their career who have not had prior career planning assistance, this approach is extremely valuable. For others, who have different needs, it can miss the mark. For example, employees with previous work experience may already have achieved a satisfactory level of competence in career planning. Individual and institutional needs change over time and organizations must be able to respond in a manner consistent with these needs and resist offering a standard solution to different problems. The

implication is that an important step in establishing any career planning and development program is to analyze carefully the needs of the people for whom they are intended. Although this is an obvious point, Gutteridge and Otte (1983), reported that most of the organizations included in their survey indicated that they should have had a better understanding of employees' needs prior to program development.

The work of Ference, Stoner, and Warren (1977) on the phenomenon of "career plateau" illustrates further the importance of understanding clearly employees' career development needs. Plateau, defined as "the point in a career where the likelihood of additional hierarchical promotion is very low," (p. 602), is regarded as a function of organizational conditions (e.g., limited number of openings at higher levels) or personal factors (e.g., lack of ability or motivation). One of the most important implications of this phenomenon is that the career development needs of employees who have reached a plateau will differ according to what factors are impeding promotion. The individual who is unable to move to higher levels because of restricted opportunities could be encouraged to take special projects or rotational assignments to enhance specific skills or to broaden experience. Individuals limited by personal factors might be encouraged to explore career goals that don't involve advancement and still remain recognized by the organization for the contributions they continue to make.

It is also evident that the career development needs of "plateaued" performers will be different from those for whom the possibilities for promotion are still very much alive. The challenge for the organization is to differentiate among employees on the basis of their specific career development needs and match them with the most appropriate type of career planning and development activity.

Developing and Improving Skills

Central to any comprehensive approach to career planning and development is some form of self-appraisal. Often this involves an examination of work-related skills and abilities through the use of tests, work simulations, or structured exercises eliciting self-estimates. Whatever method is used, employees who participate in career planning programs are normally encouraged to review their skills and, in addition to noting their strengths, identify skills they need to improve. Although there is a certain logic to this approach, it also presumes that any skill can be acquired or improved given the right kind of training or work-related experience.

London and Strumpf (1982) have pointed out, however, that evidence suggests that not all skills, and in particular managerial skills, can be acquired. In a longitudinal study of the careers of AT&T managers, Bray, Campbell, and Grant (1974) found that some very important managerial skills did not change over time and were very difficult to improve substantially. Managers either had them at an early point in their careers or they didn't.

At a minimum, then, any effort to recommend methods for acquiring managerial skills must recognize that some skills are much easier to develop than others and that some skills might be nearly impossible to acquire. For example, shortcomings in oral communication skills might

be easily remediated through a formal training program in one-to-one and group presentations skills. On the other hand, a person's lack of the ability to interpret complex information may be largely affected by aptitude and, as such, be less amenable to change regardless of the follow-up actions taken.

Although some factors affecting skill acquisition in the work setting are attributable to individual characteristics such as aptitude or ability, others may be related to aspects of the work situation itself. Examples of such factors include interpersonal relationships, budget constraints, degree of autonomy, and quality of feedback. It is somewhat puzzling that, in view of the frequency with which assignments are labeled "developmental," so little is known about how effective such assignments are, that is, by whom and under what conditions specific skills are acquired.

Importance of Information

A comprehensive approach to career planning and development must also include some effort to provide individuals with relevant career information. This is particularly important for adults. Herr and Cramer (1984) have suggested that in view of their previous experience, most adults are likely to be more aware of their values, needs, skills, abilities, and other personal characteristics than adolescents who seek career planning assistance. Consequently they are likely to have a greater need for pertinent career information than perhaps any other aspect of career planning. Too often, however, good information about career opportunities is missing from career planning and development programs (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983).

Walker (1977) described the kind of career information that organizations should provide employees. He expressed the view that effective career planning was contingent upon receiving descriptions of career paths, job requirements, training and development resources, appraisal systems, and job posting. Similar types of information were identified by Leach (1980), who also suggested that if employees are to be managers of their own careers, the organization must provide them with up-to-date, accurate, and accessible information about career opportunities. Information about career paths can be particularly useful. Although many positions do not have clearly defined career paths, information about those that do can help employees identify objectives, understand what will be required of them, and enhance their understanding of how work activities can further their professional development.

The Supervisor's Role as Career "Coach"

Discussions of career planning and development in organizations invariably turn to the issue of who provides employees with the guidance they need. Although many organizations use group formats in which the leader is at least nominally a specialist in career development, most rely on supervisors to play the role of counselor, adviser, or coach on an ongoing basis when the employee has returned to the job. Whether or not supervisors are motivated or adequately equipped for this role is

another matter. Walker and Gutteridge (1979) reported that most supervisors didn't feel that career counseling should be part of their job. Moreover, 87% of the human resource professionals surveyed reported that, in their judgment, few supervisors possess the necessary skills to perform in this role. These findings are particularly troublesome because the supervisor, in many organizations, is in the best position to influence employee career development. Even those individuals who have participated in workshops or completed self-contained career planning materials require follow-up that could be provided by a skilled supervisor.

Hall (1976) has stressed the importance, for career development purposes, of accurate feedback on performance and potential. Of even greater value would be a discussion of job performance in the context of overall career goals and plans. This could include a review of performance dimensions in light of other factors, such as values, needs, interests, family circumstances, and economic conditions, which also play an important role in career decision making.

To realize the potential value of the supervisor's role as career development "coach," three conditions are necessary. First, there must be an incentive for supervisors to perform this role. In many organizations supervisors are rewarded for keeping rather than developing employees (Miller, 1981). Organizations that expect their supervisors to play a central role in fostering the career development of subordinates must be willing to reinforce and reward these activities. Second, supervisors must have specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to be effective coaches. Miller, in connection with his description of a training program for managers, suggests that they should:

- know about organizational policies and practices that bear on career development issues;
- know the information resources available to support career planning;
- have the skills and techniques required to facilitate career planning discussions with employees;
- have a broad perspective on career development with respect to its importance to the company and what can and cannot be done; and
- have struggled successfully with some of their own career concerns.

The literature contains descriptions of other training programs intended to accomplish similar objectives (Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981; Souerwine, 1981). Finally, and somewhat paradoxically, another strategy for making supervisors more effective counselors is to train subordinates to be more active in seeking guidance from their bosses. This is not intended to suggest a shift in responsibility away from the supervisor, but rather to emphasize the joint responsibility involved in career planning and the need to encourage employees to take as much initiative as possible in planning their careers. Whatever career planning discussion occurs between supervisors and subordinates, the outcome will be enhanced if both are adequately prepared. For the subordinate this might mean initiating a career development discussion rather than waiting for the supervisor to take action, requesting feedback on specific skills that might be consistent with but not limited to those contained in the normal

performance appraisal, identifying specific questions about the organization and existing career opportunities, and getting feedback on the viability of specific career goals and plans. Clearly the organizational climate must be conducive to this type of self-initiated activity and the supervisor must have the skills necessary to respond effectively, but such actions by the subordinate seem an obvious extension of the active planning and goal setting that are nearly always a central element of career planning and development programs.

Monitoring Career Plans

One of the ironies of programs intended to promote career development is that the employee is encouraged to look at his or her work from a "life span" perspective, setting long-term and short-term goals and generating plans for achieving them, yet few, if any programs try to help individuals monitor the eventual success (or failure) of their efforts. There are too many factors outside the control of the individual to expect that goals and plans formulated at one point will remain unchanged over time. An important question, however, is how individuals cope with the inevitable barriers and discontinuities which they encounter. How should they? Storey (1981) suggests emphasizing "controllables," that is, those factors that the individual who is managing his or her own career can influence. Although this is important, an individual can learn a great deal about career planning by examining how he or she copes with discontinuities. Yet there is little evidence in the professional literature of any successful efforts to facilitate the acquisition of this skill, despite the fact that organizations seem particularly well suited to helping individuals acquire the ability to monitor their career plans. Ideally an integrated and coordinated career development system could incorporate methods involving employee review of earlier goals and plans in light of changing organizational circumstances and evolving personal characteristics, of barriers encountered and of how they were negotiated, what was learned, and how all of this could inform future planning and goal setting.

Evaluating Program Effects

The recent popularity of career planning and development programs in organizations represents a triumph of good intentions over careful inquiry. Several years ago Super and Hall (1978) pointed out that "in view of the great number of training activities in industry specifically devoted to career planning, it is disappointing that there is so little published research on their effectiveness" (p. 360). Cairo (1983) came to a similar conclusion in a more recent review and went on to argue for more carefully conceived program evaluations. Although the call for this kind of effort is common in connection with career planning and development interventions in any context, the absence of program evaluations in organizations is especially evident (Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981; Storey, 1979).

Several recent articles have summarized research on career counseling outcomes and offered recommendations for further inquiry (Holland, Magoon, & Spokane, 1981; Spokane & Oliver, 1983; Myers, in press). They

report, for the most part, the results of career interventions outside specific organizational settings. Many of their observations and conclusions, however, are directly relevant and should be considered carefully by persons responsible for evaluating career planning and development programs.

Although it is not the intention here to summarize all of the conclusions made in these earlier reviews, three specific points are worth mentioning in connection with the issues discussed above.

1. Because so many different types of programs are referred to as career planning and development, it is essential that program evaluators specify precisely the characteristics of the intervention. This should include descriptions of the nature, content, and duration of the activity being evaluated.

2. More clarity regarding goals and objectives is also needed, including specific criteria for evaluating effects. Moreover, multiple criteria should be considered, for example, to identify particular behaviors, knowledge, and attitudes that are expected to result from a career planning and development activity.

3. Studies comparing different types of helping strategies would also be useful. Although this is potentially expensive and time-consuming (and rather idealistic), such efforts would help us determine the types of activities that are most effective in facilitating career development in organizations.

Although it is much easier and less expensive to evaluate career planning and development programs on the basis of their good intentions and popularity among participants, more rigorous evaluations are needed. Such efforts should ultimately become an integral part of every organization's program planning process.

SUMMARY

Recognizing that the absence of evaluative data makes any conclusions tentative, the following recommendations are offered for the design and implementation of career planning and development programs in organizations.

1. Program development should be preceded by a systematic and thorough assessment of the career development needs of the target population. This should include some effort to distinguish between employees who require help in obtaining the standard career planning competencies and those with different, but equally important, career development needs.

2. To avoid the problems associated with employees' unrealistic expectations of career planning and development programs, information about career opportunities should be honest, accurate, and up-to-date. Wherever possible this element of a program should include information about job requirements, career paths, training and development resources, and promotional possibilities.

3. Efforts to facilitate employees' appraisal of work-related skills must include the recognition that some important skills might be extremely difficult, perhaps even impossible, to acquire regardless of subsequent developmental activities. In such cases employees might be encouraged

to focus on finding positions that maximize strengths and minimize weaknesses rather than searching for suitable developmental activities.

4. Organizations that expect supervisors to take a central role in the career development of their subordinates should provide incentives and rewards for these efforts and ensure that supervisors possess, or acquire, the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to be effective helpers.

5. Methods for helping employees monitor their career plans should be a part of every program. This will require coordination among other career-related activities to provide employees with ongoing opportunities to review earlier goals and plans and modify them in light of any new information or circumstances.

6. Finally, there is a clear need for more and better program evaluations. Given the large number of existing career planning and development programs and the likelihood of continued growth in this area, it is important that we begin to examine carefully the effects of our efforts.

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CHAPTER 16

Adult Career Development in University Settings: Practical Perspectives

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"We may be nontraditional students . . . but we do traditional work."
—a "midlife" University of Michigan junior

A revolution is confronting the "tradition" of U.S. higher education (Keller, 1983). A major part of the change is that the university, once the domain of the young adult, has become the home for persons of all ages. By 1990 almost half of the projected 12.1 million students enrolled in 2- and 4-year colleges and universities will be age 25 or older (Dearman & Plisko, 1982). In this chapter, we focus on the "university" as 4-year colleges and universities. We examine first the characteristics of adult students and the philosophy and practices of the university that influence adult students' career and educational development. We then outline a broadened conceptual model and range of roles for career service providers to meet the needs of adults on campus. In the last section we discuss some unfinished business for the future.

THE ADULT STUDENT

Characteristics

Career concerns. Adults seek further education, especially at the university, primarily for career reasons (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980; Fisher-Thompson & Kuhn, 1981; Gaff & Gaff, 1981; Heffernan, 1981; Peterson, 1981; Tough, 1981). In an extensive review of surveys of client inquiries for service at adult educational resource centers, Heffernan found vocational concerns to be paramount. Educational concerns were usually expressed in relation to career and job development concerns. A nationwide survey of why adults sought further learning found that over half the adults reported a career-related need as the primary reason (Aslanian & Brickell). Family concerns were a distant second of the other six life areas surveyed. Adults reporting a career need most frequently chose the

university or their employer as the primary locations for further education. Though the term "career" may encompass family, leisure, and other life areas, its use in these surveys refers primarily to occupational, job, and work-related concerns.

Individuality. Adult students are characterized above all by their individuality and heterogeneity (Blocher & Rapoza, 1981; Cross, 1981; Heffernan, 1981; Herr, 1984; Schlossberg, 1984b). There is no such single entity as the adult student. Adult students vary as to gender, life stages, life styles, abilities, interests, values, self-concepts, self-esteem, achievement motivation, risk-taking, goals, priorities, family responsibilities, employment status, financial obligations, civic involvements, learning styles, prior schooling experience, support systems, and a host of other characteristics. As individuals have more experiences over the life span, adults are characterized by a "fanning out," an increased differentiation, diversity, and uniqueness with age (Neugarten, 1976). Adult students have a great variety of personal characteristics and environmental circumstances that influence their career and educational planning.

Individuality is a key characteristic of adult students, but they also share some common patterns. Heffernan (1981) and Cross (1981) have provided extensive reviews and syntheses of the research on adult students.

Demographic characteristics. Compared with the general population, adults who participate in organized learning tend to have more formal education, be in their mid-20s to mid-40s, and be employed in better jobs. Adult degree-seeking students generally come from working class backgrounds and might best be described as "upwardly mobile" from their parents' socioeconomic level (Cross, 1981). They include similar numbers of women and men. Adult learners tend to be those who continue to use organized education because it has worked in the past (Goldstein, 1984). On the other hand, studies consistently identify adults who do not participate in such learning: minorities, the less formally educated, lower income adults, and the elderly.

Barriers to learning. Cross (1981) and others (Carp, Peterson, & Roelfs, 1974; Heffernan, 1981) identified three categories of barriers to further learning for adults: situational, dispositional, and institutional. These barriers apply to potential adult students in general, but are especially restrictive and cumulative for those who have had limited access to the educational or work opportunity structure, such as reentry women, displaced homemakers, minorities, and persons with handicapping conditions (Benjamin & Levy, 1981; Hall & Gleaves, 1981). Situational barriers reflect real life conditions, such as lack of money, limited time, demanding home and job responsibilities, needs for affordable child care, problems with safe and affordable transportation, and lack of support from family and friends. Funding for adults' education often is viewed as a discretionary income cost, not as an investment or obligation as is a younger person's college expenses. Adults usually are limited to educational institutions in their immediate geographical area. Job, family,

community, and other responsibilities often take priority over educational activities. As a result, formal education often is intermittent, sporadic, and part-time.

Dispositional barriers include self-perceptions and attitudes of the person as an adult learner. Adults often believe they are too old and have too limited energy for school. Because they frequently are out of practice in academic skills, they are uncertain about their abilities and tend to over- or underestimate their capacities as students. In addition, adults often have ambivalent feelings toward the university as a result of bad past experiences, lack of familiarity with a university culture, or doubts about a university's willingness to respond to their individual situations. Again, for specific groups, such as reentry women or minorities, many of these dispositional barriers compound. Persons from these groups often feel that further education is for the more highly educated or financially able and that they are alone in considering further education (Ekstrom, 1972; Hall & Gleaves, 1981). Cross (1981) stressed that some of these obstacles may be more perceptual than real, but they nonetheless interfere with adults' efforts toward further education. We will examine the third category of barriers, institutional, in our later discussion of the university.

Career socialization influences. The expectations about educational, occupational, and other life roles that adult students bring to campus often differ for specific groups, most notably for women and men. Adult male and female students have been influenced strongly by differential career socialization (Follett, Watt, & Hansen, 1980). Both women and men may bring to further learning traditional attitudes about what men and women do or should do and what to study or not to study. Adult women especially have been at a disadvantage in educational and career development over the life span. Many women have not had a career orientation, an expectation for achievement, or a sense of self-efficacy (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Sundal-Hansen, 1984). They may have to overcome feelings that certain jobs or fields are inappropriate for their gender. Other adult women may have had their decisions made for them and have no self-concept of one who can choose and plan. They may have had little significant work life outside the home and be at a very early stage in the career development process. Some may have worked in a field that became obsolete while they spent 10 to 15 years at home raising children. Some may have experienced a life crisis or unanticipated event that triggered their return to school. Much of the influence of sex-role socialization for both women and men has taken place by adulthood, with profound effects, but higher education still provides an opportunity and hope for developing new life roles that are free from limiting stereotypes (Blocher & Rapoza, 1981; Follett, Watt, & Hansen, 1980).

Positive attitudes toward growth. Adult men and women face a number of obstacles to further education, but they also bring to campus many positive characteristics for growth. They have had more experience with life than their younger counterparts and have developed skills, preferences, and values. These characteristics may not be clear to adult students when they enroll at the university but can be identified with

professional assistance from the base of life knowledge adults have. As Heffernan (1981) noted, many adult students have positive attitudes about themselves and their possibilities for change. These students may be frustrated, unprepared, and tentative about change but are willing to try. They may be reticent to embark on further learning and a new career, but once they do begin, they move forward in a self-directed fashion. They are willing to make changes under difficult circumstances when stability, not change, is the perceived norm for their age group.

Career and Adult Development Models

The basic career and life development concerns of adult university students are those of adults in general with the difference that students have chosen the university as a means to address some of these concerns. Thus, a full array of career and adult development models can provide useful information to understand the developmental process of adult students. Three models of career and adult development, however, seem to relate most directly and practically to the issues adult students are concerned about: life roles, concepts of age, and transitions.

Life roles. Adulthood is characterized by the complexity of life roles over the life span. Following Super's (1980) conceptualization, adults at any one time may play simultaneously the roles of child (including son/daughter), student, parent, worker, spouse, homemaker, leisurite, citizen, retiree, and a number of others. The complexity of roles is different for each person. For example, a woman may be a working single parent and a part-time student, or be married and a full-time student with no children. Adult students, then, must function not only as students, but they also may need to provide financial, social, and emotional support for their families. If they are employed, they must meet the responsibilities of their job, as well as seek enhancement or change of their vocation. If they are at home, they, along with their families, must meet the challenge of making the transition to the student role. They may choose to participate in community activities. They still will depend on avocational and recreational activities for growth and relaxation. Increasingly the term "career" has come to mean the ongoing development and integration of these life roles (Gysbers, 1984; Okun, 1984; Sundal-Hansen, 1984); it is this definition we apply in this chapter. Thus, adult career development is the valuing, choosing, preparing, and setting priorities for implementing, balancing, and blending of different roles throughout life.

Concepts of age. Adult students also are influenced by concepts of age from physical, historical, and social perspectives. With little biological basis for most age-related behaviors, adults are directed and constrained primarily by age-related historical and social influences on behavior (Neugarten, 1976). Age-related educational and career expectations are still deeply rooted in adult perceptions and are reinforced by tradition, stereotypes, and recent popular books on adult development (e.g. Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Sheehy, 1976). Age-based limits derive from the students themselves. Statements such as, "College is for 18- to 22-year-olds"; "Adults should be settled down and on a career track

by their late 20s"; "Age 60 is too old to change careers"; and "As a 50-year-old woman, can I really go to graduate school?" are common beliefs expressed by adults seeking educational and career services. Other age restrictions are imposed by university admissions committees, faculty, employers, and family. Though expectations are changing in the U.S., most persons still are affected by notions of what behaviors are age-appropriate (Schlossberg, 1984a).

Transitions. Adult students often have had some changes in their lives that have led them to seek education (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980). Schlossberg's (1984a) definition of "transition" encompasses this kind of change: an "event or nonevent that results in change of relationships, routines, assumptions, and/or roles within the settings of self, work, family, health, and/or economics" (p. 43). Aslanian and Brickell applied the concept of transition more specifically to education as a movement from one status in life to another that requires the learning of new knowledge, new skills, and new attitudes or values. The triggering events for a transition are as varied as the individuals who experience them. Such events may include job dissatisfaction, a layoff, a divorce, a child leaving home, a denied promotion, or any number of adult life events. As a result, adults need to become competent at something they could not do before to succeed in a new status. Change, then, is a constant of adulthood; transitions are ongoing processes characterizing adult career development.

THE UNIVERSITY

A number of educators agree that the university is not oriented philosophically or organizationally toward the educational and career needs of adult students (Blocher & Rapoza, 1981; Chickering, 1981; Cross, 1981; Keller, 1983; Nowak & Shriberg, 1981; Peterson, 1981; Schlossberg, 1984b; Tough, 1981; Walz & Benjamin, 1984). Certainly, many universities have made changes to accommodate adult students (Cross). Some schools have greatly increased the offering of noncredit courses. Others have been designed specifically for adult students (e.g., Empire State College in New York; Metropolitan State University in Minnesota). Many universities have extension divisions with a primary responsibility for serving adult students. The number of programs for continuing education for women as well as women's centers have grown dramatically. Some institutions grant credit for women's life experiences upon entering or reentering higher education after several years as homemakers or volunteers (Ekstrom, Harris, & Lockheed, 1977). In general, though, changes in traditional university programs to accommodate adults have been modest (Cross). Public universities especially have been slow to adapt to the new pattern of adult part-time students with strong career concerns (Keller). Adult educators also are concerned whether the changes that have occurred represent sincere efforts to meet the educational needs of adult students or simply represent more aggressive recruitment, minor procedural changes, and compromise of academic standards to attract adults as a replacement for the dwindling numbers of younger students (Cross).

Philosophical Orientation

Age bias. The pervasive philosophical orientation among university administrators, faculty, and staff is still toward a youthful population of 18- to 22-year-old students (Peterson, 1981). Following this orientation, the role of the university is to provide guidance and instruction for developing adolescent and postadolescent youth. The student stereotype is one of a young adult with limited maturity and life experience. Students are viewed and treated as passive learners dependent on the knowledge, judgment, and direction of experts about what is important to learn and how to learn it.

In contrast, adult students beyond (and many within) traditional college age typically have had extensive life experiences. They have assumed the major roles of adulthood at home, at work, and in the community. They are accustomed to being in charge of their own and others' lives. They have served as mentors, managers, nurturers, and colleagues outside of school. As Schlossberg (1984b) described, the character of adulthood and the character of the university are out of synchrony. Conflict occurs between the university's rigid rules, regulations, and policies and the adult student's successful management of the independence and responsibility required of adulthood. Adults have the experience and preference to direct their lives and sustain their independence but must function in a system that expects and fosters dependence. The adult student is a paradox. When the adult and the student come together, the university tends to treat the student and ignore the adult. The adult student's management of other life roles is as central as that of the student role yet usually is not recognized by the university's prescriptive system.

The age bias may affect directly career services for adults. Career planning assistance often has an emphasis toward entry-level jobs for persons with limited work and life experience. The orientation of career service providers often does not account for the complexities of adult students' lives that place practical restrictions on career and educational options. Counselors are as susceptible to age-appropriate stereotypes as is the general population (Troll & Nowak, 1976). Counselors unaccustomed to working with adult students automatically may make assumptions about clients based on age and question the feasibility of aspirations, thus limiting the range of career and educational options adult students might consider.

Gender bias. Many of the barriers related to age bias in the university may also relate to gender bias. The philosophical orientation of the university is primarily male. Women may face a kind of culture shock as they enter the university based on male values, expectations, and models of teaching and learning. Special problems exist for adult women (and their younger counterparts) who may encounter limited numbers of female role models and mentors, lack of encouragement and reinforcement, discrimination both in gender and age, sexual harassment, and other attitudes and behaviors that adversely affect their self-concepts, self-expectations, and performance. Older female students in particular may receive subtle suggestions that they have too few productive years left for

a program or a professor to invest in training them. Adult women also face the stereotype that they are not "career-oriented"; they may in fact have not learned some of the developmental career tasks that are common knowledge to male students. The burgeoning development of women's centers and women's continuing education programs is evidence of the need to counter this atmosphere. Such programs have provided a supportive academic home and services for adult women beginning studies or returning to the university. In general, though, conscious and nonconscious attitudes and behaviors of many university staff communicate negative messages about adult women being in higher education and create a different kind of experience than for many men in what Sandler has called "a chilling classroom climate" (*On Campus with Women*, 1984).

Organizational Practices

Programs and courses. Many organizational practices of the university are manifestations of an orientation toward the traditional young, full-time day student. Program and course requirements, for example, often are rigidly structured, with little flexibility to adapt them to individual needs. Although a few colleges have begun to offer some alternatives, such as "weekend colleges," most continue to offer only standard academic degree programs and degree credit courses. Coursework-only options, intensive short-term workshops and seminars, noncredit courses, or certificate programs are few or not available for adults who do not need nor have the time or finances for a full degree program. Alternative methods of instruction and ways to earn credit, such as experiential learning, are limited.

Admissions and registration. Admission criteria, such as high school test scores and college grade point averages from many years ago, are inappropriate for many adult students. Traditional admissions policies may not allow an adult student to reenroll to establish a current successful record of academic accomplishment. Complicated, lengthy procedures for admission to a program or simply for registration for a course can consume much time, require days off from work, create extra child care problems, and discourage an adult who finally has developed the courage to attend the university for the first time or once again.

Scheduling, location, and assistance. Adult students also face restrictions in access to the resources of the university. Courses and services are offered only during the day, with few if any weekly evening, weekend, and late afternoon hours for working, part-time adult students. Courses and services are highly centralized, with limited alternatives for service other than an in-person visit to offices on campus. Because services are highly specialized in different offices across campus, seeking assistance becomes a frustrating chore of going from one office to another. Part-time students who are not on campus extensively often are disadvantaged because they lack knowledge about programs and services available to them. Adult students also often face restrictive financial practices; financial aid is limited to full-time students, full fees are charged for part-time attendance, and adults with families on moderate incomes exceed the limits to qualify for aid.

The Need and Prospects for Change

The need for change is evident as adult students, in their daily experience at the university, are on the periphery of the academic community. The structures, policies, and practices of the university often do not fit their life situations. They continually are sent messages that they do not fit into the university culture, that they are atypical and do not belong. They are marginal students in a system not adapted to their backgrounds, needs, and goals (Schlossberg, 1984b).

The prospects for change are both hopeful and reluctant. Though a number of changes have been made to accommodate adult students at universities across the country, the university campus is still notable for its maintenance of the status quo (Peterson, 1981). Changes in admission requirements or criteria may be viewed as jeopardizing the academic quality of the institution. Program modifications, more varied course scheduling, new services, and other changes require additional work and inconveniences to university administrators, faculty, and staff accustomed to a routine designed to fit their preferences and life styles. The reward system, esepcially at a larger research university, does not encourage effort toward such changes.

The university is still the major source of postsecondary education in the United States in terms of time and effort invested (Peterson, 1981). It offers much for adult students: a great diversity of programs and perspectives, the only available training for many occupational areas, the credentialing and credibility needed for different career fields, and critical life coping skills. It can open doors to minorities who have been outside the opportunity structure and to women who have realized later in life that they can be achievers as well as nurturers and can have occupational careers as well as families. Yet less than one-fifth of adults in the United States engaged in organized postsecondary learning are enrolled in a university (Peterson). If the university is to remain a major resource for educational and career development, it must become more accessible and adaptive to the needs of adult students.

PROVIDING CAREER SERVICES FOR ADULT STUDENTS

The preceding description of adult students and the university indicate the extensive student needs that career service providers must address. The needs require a departure from more traditional conceptualizations and delivery of career services. Career services for adult university students must extend beyond only counselors and other student personnel workers helping individual students in counseling or career resource centers. A broader perspective is needed of what a career-related service is and who the service providers are. An adaptation of ideas from ecological and educational brokering perspectives offers a basis for a general conceptual model of providing career development services for adult students.

Ecological Perspective

The career needs of adults within the university require service providers to take an ecological perspective in conceptualizing, designing, and providing services (Blocher & Rapoza, 1981; Lynch & Chickering, 1984; Schlossberg, 1984a; Walz & Benjamin, 1984). This perspective focuses on the university, its staff, and students as a system of interconnected, dynamic parts. Functioning in one part of the system is interdependent on other parts, and intervention requires a proactive stance to meet student needs throughout the system. Career services go beyond serving students directly to coordinating and intervening within the university at several levels, in several areas, involving a variety of university personnel. An ecological perspective on human services is not new, but the continuing call for such an approach by educators and practitioners in career, educational, and adult development indicates that the translation of model to practice in these areas has been limited.

Educational Brokering Perspective

The educational brokering concept, developed in the 1970s to provide community educational and career resources for adults seeking further education, also is applicable to the university. The concept, as described by Heffernan (1981), extends beyond the simple connotation of "broker" as intermediary between adult students and educational resources. It incorporates a combination of established ideas and practices familiar to counselors, educators, and others who work in universities. Its mission is the empowerment and self-determination of adults to make informed choices, use educational resources, and increase their capabilities to improve their work and personal lives. It is partisan to the student; service providers represent adult student concerns and are neutral to the institution. From this perspective, career and educational service providers play a comprehensive set of roles to meet the complex and diverse needs of adults. The core functions or roles, though not exhaustive, include providing information, assessment, counseling, referral, advocacy, and outreach. Services should be integrated and provided together.

Career services for adult university students require breadth and flexibility among those providing the services. It is clear that no one best strategy exists for such services. The approach used depends on the individual student or client group, persons providing the services, assigned responsibilities of the service unit, available resources, institutional structure and policies, and, beyond the university, the economic, political, social, and other conditions prevalent in the geographical area. To organize and deliver career and educational services, helpers should begin with a knowledge of their system and what different components they can bring together to help adults.

A Network of University Career Services

A comprehensive, physically and organizationally integrated set of career and educational services may be desirable but not practical or pos-

sible for many universities. However, a conceptualization of the different university services and units together as a network is one way to further develop a more comprehensive service delivery system to meet adult student career needs. University student services often are organized along functional lines with little communication between or integration of services (Lynch & Chickering, 1984). Students with complex problems often are faced with fragmented, compartmentalized responses from different student service offices. An example is an adult part-time evening student who has taken prerequisite courses for several years with the goal of admission to a university's college of business administration, has received marginal grades, and has just been put on probation, jeopardizing the student's financial aid. What are the problems? Where does the student go to resolve them? Adult students' lives and their career and educational needs clearly cut across the organizational and functional lines of the university. Service units may be functionally different and physically separate but should be viewed as part of an interrelated network with a common goal of assisting students with their career and educational development.

Network members. A network of career services for adult university students includes not only the counseling centers and career resource units but also the range of offices that provide services spanning the student's length of stay at the university. Units may include preadmissions and admissions, departmental- and collegiate-level advising, financial aid, registration, academic and student affairs administration, and extension and continuing education units as well as advisory committees, student boards, placement centers, and alumni organizations. The movement toward more integrated services, especially at smaller schools, has gained some support over the past decade. At larger universities some services, such as centers for specific populations (women, minorities, older adults, handicapped, international students) and career centers have been integrated across functions to help students (Johnson & Figler, 1984; Lynch & Chickering, 1984). Adult student needs, however, often extend across a wider range of services than usually can be formally integrated. Career service providers need to provide the connecting links to bring together the different service units.

Intervention points. A broadened conceptual approach to providing services within the university seems a major task. On a daily basis, service providers are restricted by assigned job responsibilities, time, funding, administrative and colleague support, institutional policies, and many other constraints. Individual service providers and units need, then, to target the parts of the system they can affect. Helpers can start with themselves to examine their attitudes, stereotypes, knowledge bases, and practices that affect adult students. Office staffs as a group can look at their unit's assigned responsibilities, practices, and policies to better meet adult student needs and reduce barriers. Beyond any one office is the development of a coordinated effort between offices to provide problem solutions relating more to the nature of the students' needs and less to organizational boundaries. At the institutional level, units can organize

together to modify institutional policies and practices that affect adult students.

Using an imperfect system. Service providers have the basic responsibility to intervene and assist adult students. Underserved groups, such as women, minorities, and the handicapped, especially may be in need of support systems to help them survive the traditional university. Walz and Benjamin (1984) also stress, though, that the role of service providers is to help adult university students learn and adapt in an imperfect world. The challenges of overcoming barriers, managing stresses, and solving situational problems help students to develop the coping skills they need for life. The university system cannot always be blamed for the problems adult students have in achieving their goals. The development of independence and self-determination requires students to learn how to best use the system, its people, and its resources to make progress. A university's policies and practices may be unfair and restrictive for some, but students must work with and around the system and not let it deter them from their central mission of furthering their career and educational development.

Roles of Career Service Providers

In providing career services for adults, a variety of university personnel must function in diverse roles. Some of the key roles, identified as important for the behavioral repertoires of helpers (Heffernan, 1981; Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981, 1982), are described here. The roles are general functions university staff serve for all students, but we emphasize particular concerns for adults. University personnel, whether counselors, advisers, admissions officers, or faculty members, should examine the extent to which they play these different roles as they affect the career and educational needs of adult students.

Networking. Networks are needed among both career service providers and adult students themselves. The development of a network among service providers requires effort toward planned, regular communication between practitioners; it might include daily business contacts and periodic programs to focus on a particular topic or problem affecting adult students. A coordinated, collaborative network can be informal, with each unit maintaining its own identity but benefiting from jointly developing and sharing resources. Service offices might share information about adult student characteristics and needs, training and resource materials, and practices that have or have not worked in planning and management of student services.

At higher levels, a network creates a group of service offices and personnel who can promote to policymakers within the university the career and educational needs of adult students. A network is a base for representing adult student concerns beyond the university. A network of concerned professionals can provide input at the state level to affect relevant programs such as state-based occupational information systems and financial aid programs. The career development and educational funding

programs of local businesses are additional targets for intervention by an established network of service providers.

Adult students also need to establish a network among themselves at the university. They often have no vehicle to share common concerns, experiences, knowledge, and resources and to build a sense of community within the university. Career service providers can be the facilitators to bring adult students in contact with one another. Networking devices might include special orientation programs addressing campus life, academic survival skills, and other concerns of adult students. Career/life planning workshops for adult students might include staff assistance and physical facilities for self-managed, ongoing support groups after the workshops have ended. Support groups can be developed around common issues or target populations such as veterans, reentry women, single parents, displaced workers, or men changing careers. A lounge or general meeting place with weekly programs addressing adult student issues also can put students in touch with each other. There are a number of ways to bring adult students together to create networks among themselves, but career service providers need to assist in providing a reason and a place for establishing contact.

Information. Providing or helping students access information on educational and career planning matters is one of the most important roles of career service providers. Adult students need information about themselves, their values, skills, interests, and situational conditions. They need work-related information on occupations, training and credentialing requirements, necessary skills, and employers. They also need information on career and adult development: perspectives on career as life roles, the process of career planning, career socialization and stereotyping, the process of transitions and change, and other elements to help them understand both the nature of their growth and environmental factors that may affect it. They need to be alerted to the organizational and psychological barriers they may encounter. They need to know standard educational information, such as that on courses, programs, degrees, university procedures, and financial aid, but also information about the educational culture of the university. They need to know about services and resources available both on and off campus: counseling, student employment, special student centers, support groups, day care services, and others.

Concerning occupational information, adult students need information that is adult-relevant. Older students often want information on occupations beyond the entry level. They seek options that can use their prior experience, supplemented with further education, to advance or change directions. Persons with limited paid employment experience, such as reentry women, may need information about occupational and job areas in which they can begin, but they also express interest in information on advanced-level positions they can move into in time. Information requests often require more detailed responses about the gains and losses in choosing one occupational area versus another (including the current one). The costs of time, money, and effort, as well as impact on current life style involved in further education, need to be balanced and evaluated against gains in salary, advancement, work conditions,

and future life style. For adults, educational and career information are closely tied; adults require a direct, practical translation of how different educational and career options relate to one another.

Because they frequently are bound to a locale by job and family, adult students need regionally-based information. Traditional, existing information resources, such as the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, may be inexpensive and readily accessible, but are less useful without supplementation on local labor market conditions, employers, industries, and further training.

Adults also need information about the changing labor market. They need an awareness of broad trends and emerging fields. Although the common pattern for adult students has been to explore occupational and educational information to fit themselves into existing fields, they also need to become aware of developing new options and engage in some anticipatory future planning. Adult students need to learn about areas of entrepreneurial activity and identify the education needed for such choices. Trends such as those identified by Naisbitt (1982) in *Megatrends* or Cetron and O'Toole (1982) need to be a part of the information to which adult students are exposed. Of course, whether students can consider such emerging options may depend on their life situation, short-term and long-range needs, and their risk-taking characteristics.

Adult students need information on a broad base of educational options both within and outside the university. A particular university may not have appropriate offerings or be practical for a student's knowledge needs and situational constraints. Career service providers should become familiar with a variety of other learning opportunities, such as local schools and community resources, alternative programs for adults, short-term workshops and conferences, internships, and self-study options.

Accessibility of information is a problem for adult students because they generally spend limited time on campus. In addition to traditional sources of information, such as college bulletins, Department of Labor publications, and in-person group presentations, career service providers will need to rely more on nontraditional sources. Methods of information delivery might include readily available telephone advising and information tapes; self-managed slide, videotape, and audiotape programs; columns specifically for adult students in the university newspaper; announcements in local and community newspapers; television and radio announcements and programs; and computer information and guidance packages. The risk in making information more accessible is greater reliance on impersonal methods of delivery. Career service providers should stress a balance of personal contact and other methods of information delivery to involve adult students more fully in the university community.

Beyond helping adult students identify and gain access to information is the important task of helping them use the information. Adults often have limited information inquiry, processing, and interpretation skills. They may have little sense of how the information relates to their lives and goals. They often do not know what questions to ask. They are unaware of the complexity of the response that an initial question may bring. Their ability to process and interpret information is sometimes limited because of their unfamiliarity with educational systems and ca-

reer considerations, or a narrow view of career planning. To provide information effectively, career service providers must rely especially on their empathic skills, continually seek feedback from students, and help them understand the nature of the career development process.

Assessment. The role of assessment also is basic to most career service providers. Assessment begins at intake to determine students' particular needs and problems. It continues with assisting students to clarify their life roles, values, skills, personal and family circumstances, work and learning experiences, and other areas. Assessment for adult students draws more heavily on their life experiences than for younger students. Many adults have reality-tested in life their values, interests, skills, spiritual concerns, and life style preferences that can suggest new directions. Their major need is translation of their personal characteristics and assets developed from past experiences into terms relevant to work and other life roles for the future, whether they have been working at home, as volunteers, or in paid employment. From this base, career service providers can determine what further learning experiences are needed to achieve students' career goals.

A number of traditional and nontraditional methods are available for self-assessment (Fisher & Walz, 1982; Kinnier & Krumboltz, 1984). These may include interviewing and questioning, written work sheets and exercises, self-help career/life planning books, or standardized tests and questionnaires. Adults often have a preference for standardized tests; students have a layperson's expectation that an objective psychological test will provide a concrete answer about what occupations they will enjoy and be successful at. Tests may be helpful as a starting point, but they do not tap the depth or complexity of an adult's past experience. Methods for clear assessment of adult experiences to determine relevant components for career planning still are not well developed. This type of assessment must rely on more subjective methods to evaluate the personal characteristics and situational conditions that will be important for career and educational planning. Assessment requires more extensive analysis, time, and effort in assisting adults in career planning. To relate prior experiences to future career options and roles requires that career service providers have a more extensive knowledge of the skills, knowledge, personality characteristics, and educational experiences required for the different possibilities.

Counseling. Counseling is a broadly defined role for career service providers. Beyond traditional counselor functions, it often includes the roles of advising, consulting, and instructing. Counseling methods may involve one-to-one interviewing, workshops, support groups, courses, correspondence, computer-assisted guidance, and other structured programs. Persons designated as counselors might be adult student peers or psychologists, although a variety of university personnel perform counseling functions. Counselors help with a number of student needs, such as support, understanding of self-characteristics and situations, goal-setting, identification of alternatives, strategy planning, career/life planning process information, coping and instrumental skills, evaluation, and feedback. Part of the process is helping adult students understand

their values and options in a changing technological and information society. The basic function of counseling, the interactive process between counselor and student, is to help individuals make decisions that are feasible, satisfying, and give meaning to their lives.

Counseling adults requires a balance between active assistance in solving students' problems and supporting their efforts to identify and solve their own problems. Johnson and Figler (1984) note that a tension exists between different views of career services delivery. One extreme is the approach in which the client has responsibility for decision making and development of career alternatives; the other extreme is that in which service providers take responsibility for seeking and arranging opportunities for students. Because of the needs, complexities, and uncertainties of adult students, an unintentional tendency can develop to overserve students with ready-made decisions on how best to proceed and with direct interventions by the counselor to solve student problems. Yet passive counselor involvement and expectations that students must solve their career and educational problems on their own can frustrate rather than encourage adults. Adult students may need extensive assistance initially but often are capable of following through on their strategies once they have a start.

For adult students counseling services should have multiple entry points. An individual student can be at any of several stages in career and educational planning, from initial assessment of self and situation to implementation of a choice already made to searching for a job for which the student is already prepared. Many adult students do not need all the steps of a general career planning procedure. Counselors need to rely again on a thorough initial assessment of the particular adult student's needs and adapt a problem-solving strategy or program according to the student's particular stage in the process. Though adult students may not need to work through all the stages, they need to learn about the whole of the decision-making process, so that when faced with future transitions and decisions, they will be able to apply that process to the new situation.

Past life experiences adults bring to campus may have had negative as well as positive effects. Adult students often need counseling to unlearn prior perceptions and skills that interfere with future growth and development. Adults may have negative, distorted, and restrictive perceptions about age, educational experiences, notions of work, sex roles, or self-concept. They need to examine the influences of their past socialization and of societal barriers that may have limited their options and perceptions. They may have developed nonproductive habits and skills for reading and study, information inquiry and interpretation, or job search. Counselors have the added task of assisting adult students with undoing influences of the past prior to or together with helping them manage their present situations, and guiding them in effective planning of the future.

Referral. Another role of career service providers, referral, is to put adult students in touch with other career and educational resources. Individual university personnel and units cannot meet all students' needs. Within a career services network model, service providers need to develop

cooperative relationships with and rely on the breadth of other offices and agencies to help solve students' problems. Full use of the resources available helps maintain quality of services, meet students' needs, and limit the burden on any one service provider. The use of a referral network also helps adult students to increase their knowledge of available resources, gain understanding of the university and the broader system in which they must function, and develop skills for more autonomous use of the system in solving their problems throughout their stay at the university.

For effective referral, career service providers should have an extensive knowledge of what services are available for career, educational, and support needs. Services should include those within the university (career information libraries, financial aid, veterans benefits, women's centers, support services) and outside the university (agencies for displaced homemakers, local churches sponsoring job hunting support groups). Helpers should have evaluative information about other services, such as the quality of services or the kind of treatment students can expect from another office. Career service providers also are on the receiving end of referral. Each office should make its service offerings clear to other referring units, encourage referrals, and seek evaluative feedback on how other service units and students perceive the quality and practices of the office.

Advocacy. In the role of advocate, career service providers intervene within and outside the university to remove obstacles to help adult students with career and educational plans. A helper plays an advocacy role for adult students both individually and collectively. An individual adult student might need help with designing a special program, working through a complication in admissions, receiving consideration for special circumstances affecting financial aid, gaining access to a service not normally available to the student, pursuing a nontraditional educational or career field, or coping with unintentional discrimination or harassment by another staff member or office within the university. A complex, atypical problem may require the bending or waiver of a rule or procedure. At this level, the service provider is an advocate for an individual to work through a special case that does not fit normal policies and practices and that stands in the way of the development and implementation of the person's educational and career strategy.

The advocacy role also involves intervention in policies and practices that affect adult students collectively. Career service providers can play an educative, developmental function. They can provide information to increase among university staff the visibility of both the special needs and the characteristics of adult students. For example, they can make faculty aware of services available for adult students, develop programs to help university personnel examine stereotypes of adult students, and represent adult student concerns in the university governance. Service providers also can serve the functions of improving services and conditions and redressing practices that are discriminatory or restrictive for adult students. Often no clear boundaries exist between these two functions. Service providers can lobby for special services for adult students,

programs for certain adult student groups (e.g., reentry women), child care on campus, or evening hours for service offices. Intervention also is needed to reduce restrictions on part-time adult students involving registration, scheduling, financial aid, access to courses and services, fees, and other areas. The role of institutional change agent is basic to an ecological approach to intervention. Career service providers should know the principles of organizational change to carry out this role most effectively.

When possible, advocacy should avoid a militant or adversarial stance. In attempting change, career service providers need to involve administrators, faculty, and other university staff who can help make the change. Advocates need to identify a clear target for change, indicate what can be done, and document adult student problems. They may need to give special attention to those who have been outside the opportunity structure: minorities, low income persons, women, older adults, and the handicapped. Besides their efforts with students, they can assist key people in making good decisions about programs and services. They can relate the needed changes for adult students to such issues as the mission of the institution, recruitment, and retention. If they are on the cutting edge of adult and career development, they should be able to assess the need for changes within the university that are more congruent with societal change and human development (Chickering, 1981). In the career development area, especially, they can help the university move from the status quo to more proactive strategies, programs, and approaches for adults. As advocates, however, service providers need to show how the change will benefit both the adult students and the university.

Outreach. Outreach includes increasing adults' awareness of career and educational services, increasing the accessibility of services, and promoting the legitimacy of adult career development. A primary barrier to further learning among adults is not knowing about services available to help them. Career service providers need to publicize their services more widely and actively encourage adults to use the resources available. Typical methods might include university publications and announcements and reports in the university newspapers and the local media. Outreach must be active, however, and involve more than simply advertising. Personal contact is crucial to establish relationships with other helpers and with the target groups of adults. Service providers can make informal presentations to referral sources for a better understanding of the services available and of the kinds of persons that can be helped. Other possibilities are presentations off-campus in different settings, such as community special interest organizations, women's centers, minority centers, neighborhood centers, churches and synagogues, shopping centers, community colleges, and vocational-technical schools.

Service delivery should extend beyond any one office. Career specialists can work as consultants on-campus with departmental and collegiate advising offices, orientation and recruitment programs, special student centers, student unions, continuing education units, and other offices that sponsor university-wide information and development programs for students. If possible, services should be provided off-campus with, for

example, periodic evening hours at neighborhood community centers, libraries, and schools to increase accessibility and visibility and attract adults with career and educational concerns.

Beyond the outreach promotion of services is the promotion of adult career development itself. Many adults still believe there is something abnormal about a desire to change careers, to have more balance between work and nonwork roles, or to return to the university at midlife. A part of promoting adult career services is also promoting career development and learning of both women and men throughout the life cycle. Service providers need to increase public awareness about the issues of career and adult development, to help the public realize that continuous examination, planning, and change of an adult's career and life situation is a legitimate and normal process.

SOME UNFINISHED BUSINESS FOR THE FUTURE

That adult students with career needs will be coming to the university campus in ever-increasing numbers in the next decade is a certainty. We have discussed some of the problems of adult students and different strategies to make the university a more effective and encouraging place for career and educational growth. Some final concerns are whether adult university students of the future will be only like those of the past, and whether they will experience the same kind of educational environment they have encountered before. Needed changes in the adult populations to be served and the university climate suggest the unfinished business of the future for career service providers. There are some further tasks career service providers must add to their difficult assignment to ensure an equitable and humane university system for adult students.

1. Career service providers need to work toward more active recruitment and support of those adults who currently are underrepresented in the university environment, such as minorities, low income persons, the handicapped, and the elderly. Persons in these groups often are economically disadvantaged, and education is critical to their breaking out of the trap of poverty (Miles, 1984). Gradual increases in university attendance have been noted for minorities and low income persons, but the numbers are still small (Cross, 1981; Goldstein, 1984). The disadvantaged need support in, and change of, a social system, including the university, that perpetuates barriers to career and educational opportunities.

2. The emergence of new groups of displaced workers, many of them blue-collar and also rural workers, will become a growing challenge to university programs and career service providers. Many university career service providers, coming from a middle-class perspective, may not relate well to these populations. New training for current and future career specialists is needed to work effectively with these groups of adults. Cooperative programs between business and labor, such as the Employee Training Assistance Program and Career Counseling Program created by the Ford Motor Company and the United Auto Workers, represent additional efforts to meet the needs of new kinds of adult learners. In the

past, few blue-collar workers other than those in skilled crafts areas have participated in adult education, but the need for further education has become critical as job displacement increases (Goldstein, 1984). As more of these workers enter universities and as these programs expand to new companies, universities will need to become partners with business and industry to better meet the career and educational concerns of these adults.

3. Career service providers must give increased attention to the unique needs and differential socialization of adult male and female students for life roles and choices. Although the heterogeneity and diversity among individual adults has been stressed here, innovative programs to meet the needs at different life stages and transitions of specific groups of both women (reentry, empty nest, job change, elderly years) and men (midlife career shifts, forced job loss) are still required. As emphasized throughout this chapter, it is not sufficient to assume all adult women and men are alike either in prior experiences or expectations for career and education or in their experiences in the university setting. Especially for women, a number of conditions make the university an inhospitable learning environment. Many of these conditions have begun to be remedied by legislation, but many subtle attitudes and behaviors remain. These include sex bias and discrimination, stereotyping, sexual harassment, and a myriad of sometimes unconscious barriers that result in unequal treatment. These conditions have been well documented for several years in *On Campus With Women*, a publication of the Project on the Status and Education of Women of the Association of American Colleges. Career service providers must be aware of biases in testing, antidiscrimination laws (e.g., Title IX, Age Discrimination Act), sex-fair counseling practices, and other relevant policies and practices to ensure equity in education and careers.

4. There is a need to constantly remind and convince the academic community of the importance of career development in the lives of students. Studies repeatedly show the importance of career objectives for students of all ages, a trend that shows signs of even greater increase (Evangelauf, 1984). Yet fear of "vocationalism" has prevented many professors and administrators from acknowledging the importance of vocational goals as part of the university's mission. Through advocacy and educational programs, career service providers can contribute to a greater awareness of the career needs of adult students and increase the amount of support within universities for systematic, comprehensive career development programs. At the same time, it is important to keep a broadened perspective of the concept of "career." Chickering's (1981) belief that the goal of the university should be to provide education for the development and integration of the breadth of adult roles over the life cycle closely brings together the concerns of career and university education.

5. The core structure of the university needs to change to better accommodate adult students. Opportunities for flexible hours, reasonable transfer conditions, child care, transportation, evening and weekend programs, financial aid, external degrees, and experiential learning are needed

for adult students but are not always available. Career service providers need to work to integrate as much as possible these opportunities into every part of the university structure. Such opportunities and other innovative programs for adults (e.g., math anxiety, study skills, back-to-school programs) may be found on any campus, but their overall effect may be minimal if they are viewed as peripheral efforts or part of an "adult-oriented" auxiliary unit (e.g., extension programs) in which innovators are free to develop as long as they do not interfere with traditional structures and practices.

6. Career service providers should work to encourage new ways of teaching and learning as part of the change of the university. A number of new-age thinkers have begun to suggest that society is moving away from the old Newtonian-Cartesian model of knowledge on which universities are based to new ways of perceiving and knowing. The old ways represent a rational, competitive, logical, and objective compartmentalization of knowledge that has characterized university departments and disciplines and has been acknowledged as a male "agentic" model. The new ways are described as more holistic, cooperative, compassionate, caring, integrative, and "communal," characteristics associated with women (Capra, 1982; Ferguson, 1980). Men, for the most part, have been more at home in the traditional university environment that continues to prevail. The traditional methods of teaching—lecturing, note-taking, testing—with the professor as expert in a superior-subordinate relationship increasingly are being challenged by adult students who expect a more humane environment in which to learn, grow, and make decisions. The studies cited earlier on characteristics of adult learners (e.g., Cross, 1981; Lynch & Chickering, 1984) show that such an alternative educational environment is preferred by adult students and is more compatible with their needs and learning styles. To achieve such an environment, however, will require a transformation in the way the university is organized and run.

Career and other service providers who work with adult students in the university system will play a critical role in improving conditions for adult students. Some of the practices and changes we have described can be implemented at the direct service level. The major transformations will require the involvement of administrators, faculty, and staff across the university campus, but career and other service providers who work with adult students, too, have primary responsibility to effect such changes for their students and clients. These service providers are in a position to be most knowledgeable about the processes of career and adult development and the concrete concerns of adult students. Representation of these concerns is part of their job. The role is a challenging and difficult one, but as Cross (1981) notes, those who want to make a sharp distinction between "traditional" and "nontraditional" students within the university will have considerable difficulty in the years ahead. Career service providers can play an important leadership role for a university of the future in which the terms "traditional" and "nontraditional" will no longer apply.

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CHAPTER 17

Community-Based Adult Career Counseling

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It is tempting to start by saying this chapter deals with programs not classified elsewhere. Given the wide range of both clientele served and service settings, this definition may not be inappropriate. However, for purposes of this chapter, community-based programs will be defined as any organized programs that deliver career services to adults who may not be affiliated with the sponsoring organization. The key is open access. Under this definition, a school district or university may have an adult career development program, but it would only be considered community-based if it were also open to people other than matriculated students of the university.

In this chapter we will discuss some of the changing needs of adults for community-based career development programs. We will also identify some parameters that program planners need to consider in developing their approaches. Three case studies of programs in Michigan are included to provide a more detailed picture of different approaches to community-based programs. The final section, implications for practitioners, contains a series of questions for program planners to consider in developing and evaluating their programs.

This chapter is written in a manner that reflects our approach to adult career counseling. It is theoretically based, but focuses on the realities and practicalities of providing career development services to nonorganizationally affiliated adults. For an overview of career and adult development theories see chapters 1 through 3 of this volume.

NEEDS OF ADULTS

Over the years the concept of what constitutes career development for adults has changed and expanded. Many of these changes have come in response to a rapidly changing society where future shock is a present reality. Also important are the changing notions of the meaning of work and expectations of the work environment.

Some of the changes represent a blending of the stated desires of adult clients with the perceptions of career counselors as to their needs. Typically adult clients, particularly those whose career change is not voluntary, want help in finding a job. Arbeiter, Aslanian, Schmerbeck and Brickell (1978) found the primary career service requested by adults to be lists of available jobs. Adult career counselors, on the other hand, who believe in teaching the career development process insist that clients take a longer-range view. These differences in goals don't have to conflict. Both the immediate needs of the clients and their longer-range interests can be served.

Recent data indicate that the average person changes careers 5 to 10 times during a lifetime, and changes jobs far more often. This clearly supports the need for adults to learn the decision-making and job-seeking processes. At the same time, adult career counselors must understand the sense of urgency many adult clients experience when they seek help with their careers. In an increasing number of cases this sense of urgency stems from real survival needs, as laid off and displaced workers experience long-term unemployment and exhausted benefits. In such situations, career counselors may need to become advocates for their clients. They need to know about survival resources (i.e. where to get food, clothing, and shelter), as well as occupational educational resources.

Even when poverty and unemployment are not a reality, adults anticipating or experiencing a change may feel a sense of panic. This could be related to a sudden perception of running out of time to make and implement career-related decisions. To illustrate what is meant by addressing both perceived client needs and longer-term process needs, a recent document that focuses on adult career development needs will be discussed.

ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT COMPETENCIES

In a concept paper developed by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education (Miller, 1984), seven components of a comprehensive adult career development program were enumerated. Under each component is a series of specific competencies. Taken together, these components can help practitioners develop or refine programs. The seven adult career development components are to:

- develop and apply skills for coping with career transitions;
- develop a commitment to and a sense of ownership of own career;
- develop and apply career decision-making skills;
- identify and obtain skills required for entry into selected occupation;
- develop and apply job search skills;
- develop and apply skills needed to adjust to and to maintain performance in an employment situation; and
- develop and apply skills for retirement planning.

The first component, developing and applying skills for coping with career transitions, includes some intangible philosophical and emotional competencies. For example, it must be recognized that career transitions involve several stages including shock and immobilization. Transitions

must be accepted as a normal aspect of career development. One viable model for assisting people to cope with transitions has been developed by Schlossberg (1984). Helping people gain self-acceptance and understanding is an important part of the career counselor's job. It may be more effective, however, if counselors also help people with more concrete action (i.e., generating a list of transferable skills). Miller's list contains many such action steps.

WHAT'S OUT THERE?

By its very nature, community-based adult career counseling is delivered in many ways to a wide variety of clienteles. In this section a schematic way of looking at this array as well as several examples of relevant components chosen by program planners will be presented.

In Table 1, programmatic components are listed, using four basic parameters of program planning: organizational sponsor, clientele, services provided, and method of delivery. Program planners may view this table as a "menu"—choose at least one appetizer, main course, dessert and beverage. The lists in each category are not exhaustive, but it is hoped that they are comprehensive enough to be useful for program planning.

Two other important issues are length of contact and training or credentials of the counselor. These will be briefly referred to now, but discussed at length in the final section of this chapter.

Program planners do not usually have a choice as to their organizational sponsor, because this is generally where they begin. They also do not often have a choice regarding clientele. That is often fixed by funding sources or by the basic mission of their organization. Choices are more likely to exist with respect to services provided, and methods of delivery. Three programs are described below, which illustrate typical "meals," to continue our menu metaphor.

Union Management Comprehensive Program

A Ford Motor Company plant was scheduled to close in Sheffield, Alabama. In response to this plant closing, a broad-based career counseling program was developed. It was jointly sponsored by Ford and the UAW (United Automobile Workers Union). This cooperative effort was designed to assist the laid-off employees to locate new work or make meaningful decisions about their work lives. The program included the following components: career and personal counseling for individuals (families, if needed), job search skills, job club assistance, and targeted retraining programs.

Partly as a result of the successful Sheffield experience, and in expression of a joint commitment to this type of endeavor, the UAW/Ford National Development and Training Center in the Detroit area has embarked on an extensive program. UAW/Ford has established three regional Career Services/Reemployment Assistance Centers, which have comprehensive programs of testing, counseling, training, and referral. Their staff consists of both professional and peer counselors.

Table 1

Programmatic Components

Organizational Sponsor	Clientele	Services Provided	Methods of Delivery
Private agencies	All adults	Formal assessment	Individual
Business and industry	Women	Emotional support	Group
Unions	Minorities	Self-assessment	Face-to-face
"Y"s	Older people	Decision-making skills	Telephone
Public agencies e.g., vocational rehabilitation	Displaced workers	Job seeking information	Television
Schools	Physically or emotionally disabled	Job retention techniques	Computer
Colleges and universities	Prisoners and ex-offenders	Retirement planning	Professional/ paraprofessional

In these centers, individuals go through branched design programs to lead to reimbursed training or education, job seeking skills, referrals, or reemployment. Thus to return to our "menu" the organizational sponsor is industry and union. The clientele are displaced workers. The services provided are formal assessment, self assessment, job seeking information, and assistance and referrals. The method of delivery is individual and personal. An interesting addition in this case is the direct training, through targeted vocational retraining (TVRs) and prepaid tuition for self-selected formal education and training.

A unique feature of this program is its funding base. The Detroit area centers are funded in part by federal dollars through the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). Additional funding comes from the "nickel an hour" fund, a special fund earmarked for education and training in the collective bargaining agreement between Ford and the UAW. For information about the UAW Ford Center write to P.O. Box 6002, Dearborn, MI 48121.

Computer-Based Adult Career Counseling

Oakland University's adult career counseling center in Rochester, Michigan, is "staffed" by four TRS-80 microcomputers outfitted with the DISCOVER-II career counseling program. Graduate students assist with the software and hardware and, on request, follow up with individual career counseling. All of these services are available free to interested adults. The program has been used by laid-off auto workers, welfare recipients, and the whole range of job seekers and changers. A particular feature of this center is a pre- and postreferral system to more traditional counseling or academic advising resources, job-seeking skills, or placement services.

The DISCOVER-II system includes the following basic modules: Self Information (interests, skills, work-related values); Strategies for Identifying Occupations; Occupational Information (brief or detailed); and Educational Institutions.

Telephone Hotline Service

"The Phone Number," a free telephone information and counseling service, was instituted in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1973 by the Career Education Project. Staffed by paraprofessional counselors, "The Phone Number" provided educational information on both a call-in and call-back basis. Counselors were available to discuss such self-assessment topics as interests and skills and to provide emotional support with respect to plans and hopes. Also they were to provide information about: (a) the local and national employment future for the next few years, (b) listings of adult educational and vocational training programs, and (c) referrals for career planning help, vocational testing, or specialized services (i.e., financial aid or child care).

The target populations were reentering women, youth entering the job market, and older adults looking for meaningful retirement activities. However, all "people searching for ways to build a fulfilling future for themselves" were served. (Career Education Project brochure, undated.)

Sources of Additional Information

The variety of programs offered for adults across the nation is further illustrated in the executive summary of the Adult Career Advocates Training Program. (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1978.) In addition to examining services provided in various types of settings for different groups of clients, the report highlights the coordinating and information disseminating functions of such networks as Catalyst and the National Center for Educational Brokering.

At the state level, several reports are available that describe model programs in different regions of the country. For example, Moore and Miller (1977) described a comprehensive career guidance model in Georgia. Also, Regan, Paltridge, & Terkis (1978) studied adults making midlife career changes in California and developed a checklist of essential community support services needed to make programs effective. In New Jersey, a model project was developed that combined principles of peer counseling and career counseling. Among the outcomes of the project was a handbook developed for peer counselors facilitating group career counseling programs. (Office of Education, 1978.)

THREE DIFFERENT PROGRAM APPROACHES

This section illustrates in more depth a variety of approaches to community-based programs. The three case studies represent different decisions made by program planners with respect to programmatic components (see Table 1). Although all three programs operate in the Detroit metropolitan area, they differ markedly in terms of sponsorship, clientele, services, and methods of delivery.

Jewish Vocational Service and Community Workshop

The first case study, and the oldest of the organizations profiled here, JVS, is a private, nonprofit organization that has been providing vocational services for over 40 years. In 1983-84 it served over 5,000 persons. (Jewish Vocational Service and Community Workshop, 1983-1984.)

Organizational sponsor. Despite its name, JVS serves people from all religious groups. It is funded through state and federal grants and supported by both the United Foundation and the Jewish Welfare Federation.

Clientele. According to its brochure, "JVS serves the aged, the disabled, the retarded . . . the recently unemployed, laid-off or injured worker, the chronically unemployed . . . the refugee adjusting to a new culture, the student seeking financial assistance, the individual at a crossroad on his career path . . . the single parent, the displaced homemaker, the retiree."

Services. The career counseling services offered by JVS are broad. An individual seeking assistance from JVS fills out an application indicating the type of service desired. Those wishing career counseling are first seen by the supervisor of vocational counseling and then assigned to a career

counselor. All career counselors have master's degrees in either guidance and counseling or social work. There is a psychometrician on staff who administers vocational, interest, aptitude, and personality tests as individually needed.

Method of delivery. The typical career counselee is seen every other week for an average of 4 months and receives assistance in both career decision making and job seeking. JVS maintains an extensive library of occupational and educational information as well as lists of job openings. Fees for individual counseling are based on ability to pay. The placement service is free to both job seekers and employers.

Special features. In addition to individual career counseling, JVS has a number of programs targeted to a particular clientele. For example, the displaced homemaker program is supported by a grant from the Michigan Department of Labor. It is designed for people who have lost their source of economic support through widowhood, divorce, or the disablement of a spouse. It is a three-part program including 7½ days of assessment, 8 days of an employability skills training workshop, and an ongoing job club. The job club, based on the Azrin and Besalel (1980) model, meets two mornings a week to provide ongoing support. Typically people stay with the job club for 2 to 3 months.

Another JVS program designed to meet the needs of disabled adults is a community workshop where participants learn work skills and appropriate work "behavior" while performing assembling, collating, and packaging tasks. Participants in this program are paid piece-rate pay as they work under close supervision. They are also provided with an array of individual and group counseling services. Participants are prepared for the job market by learning life skills (i.e., how to cope with criticism and socialize with co-workers).

The community workshop is also used for assessment purposes in evaluating the aptitudes, skills, and degree of disability of persons who have sustained work-related injuries. Such assessment is part of the Rehabilitation Case Management Services provided by JVS for insurance companies and private industry. This program uses evaluation, case management, counseling, and vocational preparation to help injured workers return to gainful employment.

Other special JVS programs for older people are for those who need help and those who wish to give it. The Senior Adult Workshop provides people over 60 with a work environment where they can find a useful job, new friendships, and support services in order to maintain their quality of life. Built into this workshop experience are health maintenance activities and group counseling. Door-to-door transportation is provided, if needed.

On the other hand, the Senior Service Corps is designed for older adults who have time and skills to donate. Corps members are assigned as volunteers to a variety of community agencies. They meet periodically as a group to discuss work-related and personal issues. Career counselors assign people to agencies based on their interests and abilities and lead group discussions.

The Continuum Center of Oakland University

The second case study is an example of a university affiliated, community-based program. Founded in 1965 as a women's center, the Continuum Center over the years has diversified its clientele. Now men and women from young adulthood to old age are served. The center offers programs in personal and professional development as well as career development. The career programs are discussed here.

Organizational sponsor. Oakland University, a medium-sized state institution, includes the Continuum Center as part of its community service function. Although the center's offices are located on campus, its programs are geared to nonuniversity affiliated adults. The programs are usually conducted at off-campus locations such as churches, Ys, or senior centers. The center's funds derive from fees for service (for counseling and staff consulting), grants, and general university funds.

Clientele. The center's clientele are men and women from young adulthood to old age. Most young adults have the ability to pay at least a modest fee. The older adult programs are free of charge. Some of the programs are provided on a contractual basis through other organizational sponsors. These are for adults who cannot pay, such as displaced workers and recipients of public assistance. This wide range of clients has led the center to plan a variety of workshops. They provide a range of services from which clients may choose. Center clerical staff often act as intake workers to help potential clients choose an appropriate program.

Services. Since its inception, assisting adults with career planning has been a major focus of the center's programming. In many ways, the Continuum Center's development has paralleled the development described in the introduction. In its early years, when it assisted women in deciding about returning to work or school, its focus was on self-assessment (weighing interests, values, priorities, and desires). As men also began to want to increase their satisfaction with their work and their lives, a program for working people entitled "Careers in Transition" came into being. That program, still offered by the center, focuses on the self-assessment aspects of career change, but includes some of the job-seeking skills expected by participants. This aspect is ever increasing in importance. A similar program, "Considering Change," is still offered during the day and therefore attended mostly by women. It is longer and provides more opportunity for self-exploration along with an introduction to employability skills.

Employability skills are also taught separately through an evening job-hunting series that includes planning the job campaign, resume writing, and interviewing. This series involves more large-group lectures than counseling. The longer programs provide small-group counseling.

Method of delivery. The center makes its services available in many ways. It offers individual counseling. It offers structured group programs of 18–27 hours provided by paraprofessional peer volunteer counselors.

These peer counselors are carefully selected, extensively trained, and closely supervised by professional staff during their work. The training of these counselors was described by Waters, Fink, Goodman, and Parker (1977).

Over the years the center has increased its impact by training professionals in the methods and materials it has developed. Through a series of grants, center staff have trained diverse professionals around the state in career planning and employability skills for adults. Each of these training topics incorporate workbooks and a leader guide developed particularly for use with adults. (Goodman, Uhle, & Walworth, 1979; Goodman, Hoppin, & Kent, 1984)

The Communication Information System for the Unemployed (CISU)

The third case study, CISU, represents a large-scale effort to bring information and support to unemployed workers and their families. Southeast Michigan now is an area of exceedingly high unemployment. This program differs from most adult career development programs because of its extensive use of TV broadcasts and cablecasts as the primary information source and because of its underlying community organization philosophy.

According to its organizers, CISU has three basic functions:

1. to reach the unemployed and their families with current, accurate information on services and programs available to them under the Job Training Partnership Act or other programs;
2. to provide a new system of assessment, job search, referral, training, education, and counseling services in cooperation with the agencies, institutions, and organizations active in this field; and
3. to act as a regional communications link between those organizations, institutions, and agencies, including the private industry councils (PICs) and their staffs.

Organizational sponsor. CISU is funded by the Job Training Partnership Coordinating Council of the State of Michigan. Its administrative offices and sites for program development are on the campus of Wayne State University. However, CISU is operated by a consortium of organizations. Virtually every organization (labor unions, libraries, churches, social agencies, and the State Employment Security Office) that provides services for unemployed persons and their families was contacted when CISU was conceived. The Coordinating Council, the governing agency of CISU, is made up of a diverse mix of community, education, business, labor, and agency representatives.

Clientele. The unemployed people and their families who are CISU's clients utilize services in many different ways. Some may simply watch the cable television programs in their own homes and take appropriate action steps (i.e., utilizing stress management techniques, visiting a food co-op, applying for food stamps, following up on job leads, or preparing a resume).

Other clients view the programs at a job networking center in community institutions ranging from union halls to libraries, soup kitchens,

and halfway houses. Each of these centers has trained peer facilitators to conduct discussions and help clients take action based on the cable programming they have viewed.

Services. Probably the principal service provided by CISU is information carried over "The Working Channel." "The Working Channel is a cable and microwave dish received televison channel which devotes 24 hours a day of programming to the job hunting, retraining and family survival needs of the 200,000 unemployed persons in the Detroit tri-county area." (CISU, 1984). Information is cablecast about job openings, human services available, and job and economic forecasts.

To supplement and help viewers personalize the information presented, networking groups have been established at viewing centers throughout the tri-county area. These groups offer group counseling and, in some cases, many elements of an ongoing job club. Community organization skills are taught to help clients gain a sense of power and enable them to affect the "system."

As part of its services, CISU has set up an information brokerage network. It is centered in the southeastern Michigan library system. Its purpose is to identify any service, program, institution, or information that could help unemployed persons. The information collected is communicated via cablecast, teleconferencing, and a newsletter.

Method of delivery. The reliance of this project on new technology makes it unique as a career counseling program. Programming must be adapted or developed that will be interesting and provide useful information to unemployed persons.

Peer facilitators who provide on-site group career counseling have had to learn many skills, such as how to use videotaped material, bridge from a "canned" presentation to a live discussion, lead a group discussion, and help people identify transferable skills. In addition to the use of programming developed at the central office of CISU, teleconferencing can tie center clients into the central office to communicate with each other. Through teleconferencing, service providers can learn techniques and resources from each other.

Although still in its infancy, CISU is being studied by universities, educational television stations, and many other organizations around the country. The hope is that the use of new technology will prove effective in reaching large numbers of adults needing career services in their own home or neighborhoods.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM PLANNERS

Program planners have a challenge! They are often asked to develop the best program for the least money in the shortest time for the most people. How can the necessary decisions and compromises be made to ensure good programs, at an affordable cost, in a reasonable time, for a sufficient number of people? We recommend returning to what we, as career counselors, know about decision making. Tiedeman and O'Hara's (1963) paradigm of exploration and clarification seems a good schema to use in deciding about services to offer and method of delivery. This is

to assume that organizational sponsor and clientele are "givens." If not, these principles, with some translation, apply there as well.

Selection of Services

The first step is gathering information or expanding possibilities. This is the "pie in the sky" stage and it is a crucial one. As a program planner, what if everything you wish could be offered to your clients? What are their needs? What is the nature of the social-political-economic environment? What services are already available? Look through the list of "services provided" in Table 1 and the competencies discussed in the beginning of this chapter and in the appendix and decide on the ones you wish could be provided.

The next step, narrowing to a focus in Tiedeman and O'Hara's (1963) paradigm, might be compared to zero-based budgeting. What is necessary to meet the mission and goals of your organization? From "what is the most you can do?," it is important to look at "what is the least you can do?" Real program planning consists of a compromise between these two positions.

At this point, you may have chosen several services to provide. Repeat the process in relation to the more detailed components of each service. One example of this is found in the appendix. Specific competencies are listed in the areas of self-assessment, job seeking, and job retention.

Method of Delivery

In deciding upon a method of delivery, a series of decisions need to be made. Some of the choices and the rationale for each are presented below.

Individual versus group counseling. Working with individuals provides the most flexibility of programming. Each individual's personal requirements are addressed. For some people, the confidentiality of individual sessions is crucial. Furthermore, participants can progress through their individual program at their own pace. Groups, however, provide an opportunity for support and caring confrontation that is difficult to match in a counselor's office. In addition, the group can provide a richness of resources, ideas, contacts, and connections that no individual helper could master. A further consideration is the efficiency of service. Groups use less staff time.

Face-to-face versus technological intermediary. Direct personal contact with clients is certainly the mode with which most of us are comfortable. The advantages are: (a) familiarity for both counselor and client, (b) the ability to use nonverbal communication and to give feedback on nonverbal behavior (e.g., in rehearsing an interview), (c) the ability to change and modify a program based on changing client needs, and, most intangible but perhaps most important, (d) the personal support conveyed by a counselor.

The advantages of technological approaches are also many. The telephone and televison are anonymously accessible to most clients without travel. This may be particularly useful for the disabled, homemakers with young children, and people with severely limited incomes. Television can

provide information efficiently to large numbers of people. This information can be delivered by skillful presenters in a form to which the American public has become accustomed.

The computer, with its interactive properties, offers other advantages. It can store large amounts of information and retrieve it on command. Through its branched design capabilities, it can allow a client to determine the direction of exploration or information. It can provide on command a written record of all transactions. Also, it never gets tired, bored, or takes a vacation!

Professional versus paraprofessional counselors. Professional counselors have, ideally, expertise in counseling, group work, teaching career skills, and giving feedback. They also have a storehouse of career development information and knowledge of how to access the rest. They have the capability to administer and interpret tests. For all of these reasons, they are usually the "method of choice."

Paraprofessional counselors may or may not have all of these skills, but they have one distinct advantage. Whether paid or volunteer, they are often peers or close to being peers of the clients. Therefore they can serve as role models and have a credibility that professionals sometimes lack. If an ex-con says you have to get that high school diploma, the person on probation may believe it. If Dr. Jones says it, "The Man" is telling the client what to do, and what does he know about the streets? Similarly a 58-year-old widow who has recently reentered the work force may have more impact on a newly displaced homemaker than would a young PhD. Under the supervision of counselors, paraprofessionals can provide extremely effective service delivery.

SUMMARY

In all of the foregoing we have only touched on the plethora of different programs that exist for adults in the community at large. This variety is exciting yet it also contributes to a confusion as to what is best in setting up new programs or reevaluating existing programs. It has been our aim to provide some dimensions to use in decision making and some examples of the range of possible alternatives. The examples cited will, we hope, provide practitioners with some new ideas or possible resources.

Appendix A
Competencies Needed by Job Seekers

Developed by the Continuum Center,
Oakland University*

A. Self Awareness/Assessment

Participants will:

1. understand the psychological impact of looking for work.
2. identify and list accomplishments and achievements.

*Under a grant from the State Board of Education, Michigan Department of Education, Vocational-Technical Education Services.

3. identify and list their technical skills;
4. identify and list their transferable skills;
5. realistically assess their strengths;
6. realistically identify weaknesses, develop strategies to correct them, and minimize their effect on the job campaign;
7. realistically assess liabilities, identify those that can be overcome, and develop an action plan for doing so;
8. specify values and set priorities;
9. define interests;
10. know techniques for reducing stress related to the job hunt; and
11. combine self-assessment information and match to potential job target.

B. Decision Making

Participants will:

1. identify individual realities and practicalities;
2. be able to set long- and short-term goals;
3. know appropriate decision-making strategies for job-search process; and
4. assess relocation, self-employment, civil service, and military service as alternatives.

C. Planning Job Campaign

Participants will:

1. be able to demonstrate knowledge of the sequential nature of the job hunt process;
2. know sources of occupational-educational information;
3. know how to establish, expand, and utilize an information and support network;
4. be able to locate employers who hire in their occupational area(s);
5. be able to identify job openings or potential openings;
6. be able to conduct an information interview;
7. have knowledge of information relevant to their identified area(s) of work;
8. define alternative ways of gaining needed experience and training and know informal aspects of the job search; and
9. set up and maintain a record-keeping system.

D. Communication

1. Oral

   Participants will:

   a. be competent in assertive communication techniques as applied to the job-search process; and
   b. be able to gather information and market themselves over the telephone.

2. Written

   Participants will:

   a. compile a personal data inventory including previous work experience, educational/training history, military and community service activities;

b. be able to complete a job application correctly;
c. know how to write an effective resume; and
d. know how to write an effective business letter including cover and follow-up letters.

E. Interview Skills

Participants will:
1. know what to expect from a job interview;
2. be able to translate self-assessment into an interview presentation;
3. be able to state clearly occupational goals;
4. know how to rehearse answers to both typical and problematic interview questions;
5. know legal rights in interview situation;
6. be able to demonstrate knowledge of organization and job responsibilities and ask relevant questions;
7. know how to dress appropriately;
8. be able to implement effective nonverbal behavior;
9. know how to develop an interview plan and apply it in an actual interview;
10. know appropriate time to ask questions regarding pay and fringe benefits; and
11. be able to utilize appropriate closing and follow-up techniques.

F. Job Retention

Participants will:
1. learn how to assess the expectations of the work environment;
2. be able to ask for ongoing evaluation;
3. be able to ask questions to enhance knowledge of job and organization;
4. know employer's expectations regarding punctuality, reliability, quality, and quantity of work;
5. be able to realistically self-evaluate and point out achievements at performance evaluation; and
6. know how to gather information and make decisions regarding occupational future.

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CHAPTER 18

Career Counseling Adults in a Community College Setting

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Adult and career development theories encompass rich and varied concepts that can help community college counselors understand and better meet students' needs. On the other hand, limitations of adult career development theories are exacerbated by the nature and scope of the community college.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE DEMOGRAPHICS

The community college is a comprehensive, public, postsecondary institution with an open-door admissions policy offering both credit and noncredit courses. Community colleges offer 1-year certificates and 2-year degrees in technical and semiprofessional occupational areas, academic programs for those transferring to 4-year institutions, and developmental education for precollege students with marginal skills (Chernow & Chernow, 1981).

The students in community colleges are as diverse as the programs. Consider Montgomery College, a 3-campus community college in Maryland, where the student enrollment pattern is similar to that of many other community colleges. Of the 20,000 students, 91% are county residents and 45% are Montgomery County public school graduates. In fact, 22% of all 1983 county public school graduates chose to attend Montgomery College. Fifty-six percent of the students are women, 25% are minorities, and 16% are from foreign countries. The average age for students is 28 years. About 54% are employed full time, whereas 19% hold part-time jobs. Fifty-four percent of the students attend day classes, 32% attend evening classes, and 14% attend both day and evening classes. Fifty-eight percent intend to transfer to a 4-year college. More than 300 students take courses by television. Forty-one percent are enrolled in occupational programs (Office of Institutional Research, 1984). Thus, the nontraditional student—women, minorities, international students, older students, part-time students, full-time workers, evening students, commuter students, and students in occupational programs are increasingly the traditional students in today's typical community colleges.

ISSUES FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE COUNSELORS

Despite the diversity of students and programs the community college counselor consistently encounters three categories of interrelated issues: transitional, self-concept, and logistical.

The characteristics of a transition as described by Schlossberg (1981) include the following: (a) role change, (b) positive or negative affective changes, (c) internal locus of control versus perceived lack of control in one's life, (d) on time versus off time with respect to an event being age relevant, (e) gradual or sudden onset of change, and lastly, (f) the degree of stress. Some examples of transitions include: reentering the job market, changing careers, returning to college to earn a degree, and retiring.

Self-concept pertains to the worth of self in relation to others and the empowering of self to make choices and accept responsibility for those choices. Some of the self-concept issues encountered in the community college setting involve low self-esteem resulting from poor past performance in an educational setting, a fear of being too old to learn, and feelings of inadequacy due to a lack of information about how to negotiate the community college environment or the job market. Particularly, self-concept issues are exhibited in the forms of:

- "A syndrome" where many adults believe that they must receive an "A" grade in courses or they have failed. This seems to be generally true of adults returning to school after a number of years away.
- "Role conflicts" where there is difficulty in integrating two different roles. Some examples are: retiree versus worker; wife/mother versus career woman; discontented but secure worker versus career changer; student versus worker; and married person versus divorcee.
- "Identity crisis" with the loss of support systems and uncertainty about self-image. An example of this might be a woman in her second year of study who loses the encouragement and understanding of family members and friends. As she begins to develop a new sense of self, conflicts may arise with family members and friends.
- "Nontraditional labeling" where discomfort is created because adult students are considered different from the traditional student population. They are sometimes assigned the status of an appendage to youth (Barton, 1982).
- "Sex role and occupational stereotyping" where either college advisors or adults themselves limit their behaviors and occupational choices due to their internal stereotypes of sex-appropriate behaviors and occupations.

Logistical issues are feasibility issues. Adults are concerned about child care resources, ease of parking, hassle free registration, availability of a suitable class schedule to fit in with child care and employment needs, and financial aid. In addition, adult community college students want to know that, if they take classes or get a degree, job placement services will be available at the end of the program.

Some of the services available within the community college to address these logistical needs are: weekend college (classes offered all day Sat-

urdays); open child care centers; evening career advising; and extended hours for career resource centers.

These issues are "reality" issues that must be taken into account in judging the usefulness of adult career development concepts in the community college setting. A theory-based interest inventory that indicates engineering technology as a possible occupation is of little use if the student's occupational stereotypes and math anxiety are not addressed. Also, that adult student may never graduate if required classes cannot be scheduled to fit in with employment needs. These key issues need to be explored and resolved by the career counselor and adult learner together. The role of the career counselor must be to develop programs and approaches that focus on these reality issues as well as those of career development theory.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE CAREER PROGRAMS

Career counseling programs and services at community colleges are designed to meet the diverse needs of adult students. Some of the characteristic programs and services that will be discussed are: the career resource center, individual career counseling, student development courses, career and educational workshops, cooperative educational courses and programs with business and industry, and computerized occupational choice and information services.

The focal point of many community college programs is the career resource center. Career resource centers in the community college setting are usually open 12 hours a day and feature a variety of materials and services for adults. These include written information and books on job hunting and changing careers, audiovisual materials on job search, occupational or company information career files on a variety of occupations, "how to" stations, computerized college and job search systems, college transfer information, and job placement services.

Community college career resource centers also generally have a series of self-managed career life planning activities to answer the needs of adults who do not participate in courses or workshops. After individual consultation with the career counselor, adults work independently on a wide range of issues. These activities generally take place in work stations organized around self-assessment (skills, values, and interests), occupational exploration (library research, networking, informational interviewing), and refining job search skills (resume writing and job interviewing).

Individual career counseling is a valuable service provided in the community college setting to assist adults as they reenter college, seek job upgrading, make midlife career decisions, and plan for the use of their leisure time during retirement. At some small campuses, all new students are interviewed by a career counselor to define career goals and select the appropriate curriculum. Often, career counselors use a host of career inventory and personality assessment instruments for diagnostic purposes. Some of the major assessment instruments used in the community college setting are: Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, Myers-Briggs Type

Indicator, Self-Directed Search, VIESA Career Guidebook, and ACT Career Planning Program (adult series).

Student development courses offered at many community colleges are designed to help adults meet their educational and vocational needs. For example, at the Rockville campus of Montgomery Community College, adults can choose from a group of courses all taught by the counseling faculty. The course, "Options for Women," offers women over age 25 training in the following skills: time management, assertiveness, decision making and goal setting, networking, and career/life planning. In the course, "Career Development: Dynamics and Application," students learn to plan, establish, or change a career. Three courses address the need for academic skills: "Study Habits Development," "College Survival," and "Memory Development."

Workshops are also generally offered on career and educational issues. For example, "Career Life Assessment Skills Series" (Curtin & Hecklinger, 1981) is offered at Northern Virginia Community College. It is a group of eight noncredit workshops covering the following topics: Your Unique Self, Job Market Investigation, Job Campaign Strategies, Job Keeping and Revitalization, the Federal Employment Process, Academic Survival Skills, Mid-Life and Career Transition, and Pre-Retirement. The workbooks and audiovisual materials developed for these topics also may be used by career counselors with individuals and groups outside the workshops.

Cooperative programs with business, government, and nonprofit institutions represent a growing trend used for student placement, especially for older students. For example, "Jobs for Older Women" at the College of the Emeriti, San Diego Community College District, assists women entering the job market by use of a mentor network of volunteer business and professional women. Job applicants are recruited and advised and are offered services from the college's counseling center and community agencies. Individual mentors provide advice and modeling (Aronson & Eccles, 1980).

Cooperative education courses are offered on a number of community college campuses. At Montgomery College, Germantown Campus, career counselors advise adults who have met prerequisites to choose from a series of courses, with learning taking place in the work setting. Courses are offered in accounting, computer science, electromechanical technology, and business. The courses help link adult students with employers. Thus, adults are given the opportunity to integrate classroom theory with real life work applications. The student earns academic credit and is evaluated by the employer.

Other community college programs and services include career information, outreach activities, and employment services. Career information is provided by various means. One approach to occupational choice is through the use of a computer system such as Inform (a local and nationwide career information delivery system) or COIN (College Occupational Information Network). At Montgomery College, Rockville Campus, a faculty member is selected and given time to be an occupational program specialist. In this role, the faculty member serves as liaison with the occupational program coordinators and the career counselors. The

occupational program specialist conducts needs assessments, suggests career development interventions and strategies, plans and coordinates career fairs, and updates curricular and employment information. Another approach to providing career information is for career counselors to maintain alumni banks of graduates as referrals to provide occupational information. In addition, newsletters are used to inform adults about employment trends, job information, occupational profiles, career development events, and related adult career development issues such as test anxiety, time management skills, and stress coping skills.

In providing outreach, the role of the career counselor is expanding. Community college career counselors speak to homemaker groups, county organizations, civic clubs, government agencies, union members, and employers about employment trends, the career/life planning process, and resources of the community college. In rural areas, adults are served by mobile career vans equipped with occupational literature, filmstrips, cassettes, and self-help career/life planning stations.

Employment or placement services at the community college's career center take many forms. The range is from bulletin boards with job listings to computerized data banks of local job opportunities to elaborate systems of matching students' credential files to employer needs from the on-campus interviewing program. The emphasis is generally on employment and employer information.

CHANGING ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE CAREER COUNSELOR

In developing programs and approaches, the career counselor at the community college assumes many roles. One role may be that of a personal counselor who must deal with personal issues and their immediate effect on the student. Another role may be that of a career development skills instructor. Still another may be the role of program developer and manager. A fourth role is that of an immediate problem solver. Finally, there is the role of community referral agent.

In today's rapidly changing college and work environment the nontraditional student of the past is becoming today's traditional student. Career development services must reflect a multidimensional perspective of change, rely on theoretical foundations, and incorporate key reality issues. Career development resource centers, courses, workshops, self-managed activities, cooperative programs, information, and outreach and employment efforts are but a few examples of career development services. These focus on transformative change while linking the adult student with the career/life planning process. The goals of any career development program should be to meet the specialized needs of the target population and to promote a rewarding life style with a corresponding positive self-concept.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER COUNSELING TRAINING

Listed below are some training implications for career counselor education:

- At the graduate school level, career counselors planning to work with adults should take required courses in adult and career development (with emphasis on sex role socialization).
- Materials used in career counselor training should include all client populations and be carefully reviewed for bias.
- A practicum should be required in career counseling of adults.

Some implications for practicing career counselors are:

- Career counselors should have periodic inservice training on adult development, nonbiased career counseling practices, and job market information.
- Theories of career development need to be reviewed for applicability to diverse student populations.
- Career counselors must examine their attitudes toward diverse client groups (i.e., women, the aged, the handicapped, and minorities).
- Career counselors should be familiar with current literature regarding stereotyping, developmental needs, career life planning theory, and employment trends.
- Career counselors must perceive themselves as change agents. (a) this includes career counselors taking a proactive role in developing strategies and procedures to deal with transition, self-concept, and logistical issues. Some examples include: job clubs for students, opportunity seminars for entering nontraditional fields, and dress-for-success workshops. (b) it also includes career counselors becoming involved in career curriculum development (i.e., consulting with advisory boards and faculty). (c) finally, it also means that career counselors must push for change in their own work place (i.e., alternative work patterns, flextime, increased child care options, and job sharing).
- Community college counselors have to concern themselves with the assumptions and technological implications of andragogy, the art and science of helping adults learn (Knowles, 1977).

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter has been to describe the demographics of the community college student population, to point out three interrelated reality-based issues, to describe some typical community college programs and services, and finally, to discuss the changing roles of the community college career counselor. Although only brief descriptions and elaborations of these areas were possible, it is hoped that the reader has an increased understanding of career counseling in the community college setting.

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